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SOME ASPECTS OF THE ATTENTION PROBLEM

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The literature dealing with attention yields both a large mass of experimental data and a very great amount of disagreement as to the interpretation of the data which have been gained. So much of a pitfall for our thinking is here the old faculty psychology, that we have to be constantly on our guard against thinking of attention as a sort of *deus ex machina*, which seizes now on this, now on that, item of our mental experience, and drags it to the surface for closer examination. Any attempt to interpret and apply the experimental data ought, then, to be prefaced by some sort of a working theory of attention.

In the first place, attention is fundamental for consciousness. The outer manifestations of attention are present in the child a few days after birth, as Preyer and others have shown. The child's eyes follow a light, or are attracted by a bright object. And as we go down the scale of animal life, we still find that selective adjustment of the organism to its environment which must be the result of a selective action of consciousness, that is, of attention. Sherrington has pointed out that in reflex dogs, one reflex tends to inhibit another associated with it—for instance, the patellar reflex only functions in a weakened form when the leg is in reflex flexion. While the threshold of irritability is lowered at one point, it is raised at others. Now in the normal animal, where all processes are co-ordinated by the action of the animal's full consciousness, this inhibition is more complete. But just this inhibition of all other processes, in order that one may be carried out more completely, is analogous to what we call on the psychic side the work of

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attention. So that we may say, with Vaschide and Meunier (64), that attention is on the psychic side what reflex irritability is on the nervous side. This must mean that attention is a fundamental property of consciousness, that it is present wherever consciousness exists, and that it is a *sine qua non* of its existence. For reflex irritability, its nervous analogue, meaning both inhibition and the possibility of reaction, is a function which distinguishes any animal, however low in the scale. Wherever consciousness may first appear, it must in its action be conditioned by, or run parallel to, this fundamental property of irritability—that is, it must possess the power and the limitation of attention. This is, of course, equivalent to making attention mean consciousness in action. It is merely an expression in psychic terms of the fact that all consciousness is narrow—that it can busy itself with but one thing at a time.

If we inquire more closely into what the attention experience means for us, we are met by a great confusion of theories. It has remained for Titchener to point out (62) that all these theories, from the motor theory of Ribot to the apperception theory of Wundt, have a common basis. They all stress the element of clearness. Attention he defines as sensory clearness. It is the becoming clear of an idea in consciousness. There are certain stimuli which, as it were, possess in themselves qualities that send them shooting up to the surface of consciousness, while all other ideas are for the time kept down. This definition, Titchener admits, does not define clearness, but that, he thinks, is impossible, since clearness is one of the primary properties of sensation.

We should think, then, of attention, not as some mystic power that the mind possesses of lighting up, now this idea, now that, but as an expression of the fundamental nature of consciousness which limits its action; as a way in which consciousness must at all times work; as the process by which, psychically, ideas become clear. This is the standpoint in what follows.

I. Attention Measurements. Many attempts have been made to find experimental methods for measuring accurately the degree of attention shown by a subject under given conditions. But while it is true that almost any psychological experiment involves attention, and so may be used as a rough measure of its results, it is equally true that the processes involved are so complex that it is almost impossible at present to get tests which will give a satisfactory, definite measure of attention. It seems, therefore, necessary to glance at the methods in common use, that we may be in a position to estimate their validity when discussing their applications.

Pillsbury (49) distinguishes three methods of measuring attention. The first of these attempts to measure attention directly in terms of the accomplishment of some task in which attention is involved in a high degree. The methods used may be the discrimination of two points by the æsthesiometer (7, 19), the quickness of reaction time (4, 5, 7, 16), the time and accuracy of marking certain letters on a page of proof, the subject perhaps carrying on some other activity at the same time (55, 7), the method of filling blanks in sentences, the so-called "combination method" (25), and the like. No one of these methods is satisfactory. Many other elements are involved in the æsthesiometer tests, reaction times may depend on motor quickness or intelligence rather than on attention, the combination method is rather a measure of general intelligence. The marking of letters on a page of proof is perhaps the most satisfactory, but even here, as with the others, practice and training tend to enter, as Binet found (7), after the first trial.

The second method attempts to make some secondary change in the course of the operation stand as a measure for attention. The usual method here is to measure the so-called fluctuations of attention. Stimuli which have a just supra-liminal value tend to appear and disappear rhythmically. The attempt is made to hold the stimulus before consciousness by an effort of attention, and the result taken as a measure of the degree of attention (26, 28, 34, 50, 56, 59, 60, 67). The question seems, however, far from being settled as to whether these fluctuations are due to the attention itself, or to the fatigue of the sense-organs, or to vasomotor and other rhythms, and Titchener (62) even denies that they exist in certain cases, so that these fluctuations form hardly a satisfactory measure.

The third class of attention tests attempts to measure attention by measuring the breaking strain necessary to distract it. Kraepelin (37) had his subjects do mental arithmetic while reading a text, Miss Sharp (55) took the time necessary to read a page, and then the time necessary to read it while the subject was at the same time writing the letters of the alphabet, and Binet's method (7) was similar. This test, as will be shown later, involves rather a quick shifting of the attention than distraction proper. Another difficulty is the impossibility of standardizing distraction materials, a task which, of course, would have to be repeated for each individual serving as subject.

No satisfactory means for measuring attention have, then, as yet been found. If we keep in mind that, according to our definition, it is the degree of clearness of an idea that we are attempting to measure, this does not seem so strange, as clearness is at best a slippery concept.

II. Attention Types. Attempts have been made to group individuals into classes according to the sort of attention which they show, to distinguish "attention types" as we distinguish types of imagery. The most recent and complete is that of Meumann (43).

His types are paired—a concentrated versus a distributive type, fluctuating and fixed types, types showing voluntary and those showing involuntary attention, a type of slower and one of quicker adaptation, static and dynamic types, types of uniform and of variable attention, and of lasting and easily fatigued attention. (These terms will be defined as they are used.) He would group individuals under these rubrics, speaking for instance of the attention of a subject as strongly concentrated, slowly adapting, lasting, etc.

Now the question arises whether differences in attention itself are really at the bottom of many of these oppositions, or whether many of the differences are not due to the operation of factors other than the attention, in which case we would surely not be justified in keeping the term "types of attention" for any differences so analyzed. Meumann's types on closer examination seem to reduce to three, so far as the quality of attention shown is itself concerned. His other types either reduce to more fundamental characteristics of attention, or to other factors altogether. This will be made clear by following his argument.

The distributive type is first discussed. The word distribution, as it relates to attention, Meumann uses in three ways. (a) It is used to mean the number of stimuli which can be clearly apprehended at once under similar and equally favorable conditions, as exposure in the tachistoscope. (b) The number of stimuli, homosensorial or heterosensorial, apprehended at once under varying conditions, as in everyday life. (c) The number of activities which can be carried on simultaneously, with attention directed to each. He proposes the use of the word "attention-span" (*Umfang*) for the first class, reserving the term "distribution" proper for the second and third.

The first question here is whether differences in the attention-span are really due to individual differences in the breadth of attention itself. The experimental data seem to show that they are not. It is of course true that individuals perceive a varying number of letters or simple objects in a tachistoscope exposure without eye movement, and that this number is relatively constant for each individual. But Hylan has shown (33) that there is here really no simultaneous distribution of the attention; that it is not the width of the attention-span that is different, but (a) the rapidity of fluctuation of the attention from one stimulus to another, and (b) the power of

synthesizing disparate stimuli into a singly apprehended whole. His subjects directed their attention to a number of slits in a piece of cardboard, behind some one of which was to appear a white bob, the order of appearance being at first known to the subject, then unknown. When the particular slit behind which the bob was to appear was unknown to the subject, the reaction time was longer, and also showed a greater mean variation, showing that the attention was not uniformly distributed over the slits, but fluctuated from one to another. The mean variation and the length of the reaction time tended to lessen with practice, showing, not that the attention was becoming more uniformly distributed, but the stimuli were fusing into a unity for consciousness. In the light of these conclusions it seems hardly possible to admit that distribution of the attention in the sense of the attention-span, means anything more than either quick shifts of the attention or the synthesizing power of perception.

Nor is the case different with the second use of the term distribution, when stimuli are given under varying conditions, as in everyday life. The orchestra leader who sees the movements of the players, follows the tones of the instruments, and co-ordinates the whole, is showing this sort of distribution, says Meumann; a sort of distribution which is not opposed to concentration, but supposes a high degree of it. He suggests for the measure of this sort of distribution a modification of the usual tachistoscope experiments. Evidently this use of the term is only a complication of its first use, and must be discredited on the same ground.

For the measurement of the third sort of distribution, that involved in carrying out several activities at once, Meumann suggests the use of an apparatus described by McDougall (40) which consists essentially of a rotating drum on which is pasted a strip of paper with dots arranged in irregular spirals. This drum is set rotating at a given speed, and the subject, with a stylograph, marks each dot as it comes before him. Then he attempts other mental operations at the same time, and even a third sort of activities may be carried on. It would seem here, too, that we are dealing with activities which are carried on, not simultaneously, but by quick shifts of the attention. Motor quickness, too, plays a part, and also the well-known fact that some of such activities tend to lapse from consciousness, to become automatic.

Our conclusion must be, then, that an "attention type" cannot be set up on the basis of individual differences of power of distribution of the attention, since this power on examination reduces to other, more fundamental factors.

Meumann discusses second the concentrated type. Concen-

tration produces two sorts of psychical effects, (a) other contents of consciousnes tend to be inhibited, and (b) there is a positive supporting effect with regard to the favored process. As regards the degree of inhibition, of the contents in the *Blickfeld*, there are two cases, (a) inhibition of sudden stimuli, and (b) inhibition of long continued stimuli.

For measuring the degree of inhibition of sudden stimuli, the use of a drum is suggested, revolving at such a speed that words arranged on its surface so as to be seen one at a time can just be read. While the drum is revolving at this optimum speed, a second series of varying tactual or auditory stimuli is introduced. The fewer noted of the second series, the greater the inhibition. Miss Sharp, in a similar experiment (55), found considerable individual differences. Her subjects read aloud about ten lines of a novel, without hurrying. The time was taken and the subject read it again, at the same time writing letters of the alphabet. One subject accomplished the first reading in 26 seconds without distraction, the second reading with distraction in 29 seconds, only writing 13 letters. Another subject took 28 seconds to read without distraction, 113 to read with distraction, and wrote 91 letters. The differences in the degree of inhibition are obvious.

For the measurement of the effect of long continued stimuli the use of some such stimulus as the noise of an induction coil is suggested. As Kraepelin has pointed out (37), the effects of habituation tend in such experiments to vitiate the results. Other complications in interpreting the results of distraction experiments have already been suggested.

The positive support which concentration of the attention gives to an activity, says Meumann, is extremely difficult to measure, but he thinks it may be arrived at indirectly through measurements of the amount of distribution shown, or through the experiments to measure the degree of inhibition.

With regard to the whole matter of concentration it seems that, although they cannot be well measured, considerable individual differences do exist which do not reduce to anything more fundamental. It seems justifiable, then, to make individual differences in concentration the first standard for marking off attention types.

Next, the fluctating-fixed types. Fixed attention, in Meumann's sense, is shown by a subject who, for short stimuli, has a small observation field, and that clear. It may be called objective attention, as there goes with the clearness of observation ability to reproduce without adding subjective elements to the objective perception. The fluctuating type shows a probably larger but more obscure field, with less objective truth in reproduction. Binet (8) gives interesting illustrations of

individual differences in this respect. Fränkl (27), in the case of words exposed for a short time, says that a subject showing fixed attention begins at one end of a word too long to be apprehended by one act of attention, and works toward the other end, or begins in the middle and works systematically toward the ends, while the individual with fluctuating attention catches a few letters here and there and guesses at the word.

We must ask now whether these differences which exist between the fluctuating and fixed types are due to fundamental differences in attention, or whether they reduce to differences in other processes. Fränkl, in the study just referred to, attempts to show that they depend on differences in the modality of mental imagery—subjects of a visual type showing fixed attention, auditory-motor subjects, fluctuating attention.

His results, however, do not seem conclusive, owing primarily to the fact that his normal subjects numbered only seven, six children and one adult; numbers too small to exclude chance coincidence. Dürr (24) considers that the primary difference here is one of memory. Only a subject, he says, who possesses a sufficiently good memory to retain the separate parts of a large object in mind and finally combine them as a whole can proceed by the systematic method of fixed attention; individuals with poorer memories find themselves obliged to let their attention fluctuate rapidly over salient points.

It would be interesting to find how far individual differences in power of concentration are responsible for differences in fixity. The synthesizing power of perception, also, of which we have spoken, which is so largely due to past training, is evidently partially responsible. Although the case is doubtful, it seems from all these considerations that other factors than attention are so largely concerned that it is probably a mistaken view which would make individual differences in the phenomena under consideration due to definite differences in qualities of the attention itself. The fluctuating-fixed types must be, then, for the present, ruled out.

The next types discussed are those of voluntary and involuntary attention. Meumann suggests for the experimental measure of voluntary attention Kraepelin's well known work-curves. The oftener the attention tends to lapse from a difficult task, the more is involuntary attention shown; the less it tends to do so, the greater the voluntary attention. These stand in inverse relation, so that measuring one necessarily involves measuring the other.

It would seem that the differences which Meumann has in mind here really reduce to differences in the ease with which,

and the time during which, resistance to long-continued stimuli is kept up. But the amount of resistance he has already told us may be used to measure the degree of concentration. The temporal element will be discussed later. There hardly seems necessity for introducing voluntary and involuntary types as new terms at this point, for so far as differences in degree are meant, the ground has already been covered. In this sense voluntary attention supposes a less perfect degree of concentration than involuntary, and hence feelings of effort and strain, of "activity," in short, which tend to diminish as the adjustment to the situation is effected. The other possible distinction between voluntary and involuntary attention is in the matter of object. Involuntary attention means attention to an object for its own sake, voluntary, for indirect reasons. But this difference is not one with which individual differences in the qualities of attention have to do, but a difference in the object of attention, and, as such, must be excluded from any group of types based on differences of those qualities. Individual differences in the power of voluntary attention reduce, then, to differences in degree of concentration and differences in the objects with which attention deals—the former already accounted for, the latter surely an impracticable basis of classification because of its complexity.

Meumann further classifies individuals with respect to the rapidity with which attention adapts itself to a new task. The familiar experiment of finding how much is retained by a subject after each reading of a series of nonsense syllables will show a much greater amount of retention after the first reading for some subjects than for others, due to the rapidity with which attention adapts itself to a new task. Binet (7), subjecting 11 pupils classified by their masters, 5 as intelligent, 6 as unintelligent, to a variety of tests, reaction times, æsthesiometer, accuracy in copying, memory, marking letters on a page, etc., found that the main difference between the two classes was in the rapidity of adaptation. The intelligent pupils did the tests, as a rule, much better the first time than the unintelligent, but the discrepency tended to disappear with practice. Fränkl, in the study mentioned above (27), found considerable individual differences in rapidity of adaptation clearly shown—differences which he attempts to correlate with differences in the quality of mental imagery.

It would seem impossible to reduce differences in rapidity of adaptation to other factors than fundamental differences in the qualities of attention itself. Consequently we may make a grouping of individuals into types with respect to the rapidity with which their attention adapts itself to a new situation, our second basis for a classification into attention types, the first,

as already stated, being differences in the degree of concentration possible.

The other three pairs of types are the static-dynamic; the uniform-variable, and the resistant-fatigued. By static attention Meumann means attention which, once directed to a task, continues without further impulse from without. A subject who shows dynamic attention, on the contrary, has to be constantly spurred on. He would measure results here by the use of just supra-liminal stimuli, since variations are more easily detected by their use.

Regarding the uniform-variable type, he says merely that the course of concentration is with some individuals particularly uniform, with others it varies very much. For the resistant-fatigued, he says that some individuals show for a short time great concentration, others are capable of long and tireless effort, there being no necessary mathematical relation between degree of concentration and rapidity of fatigue.

These types do not seem to be well differentiated. The common element at the basis of all of them is evidently temporal; the time for which a certain degree of concentration can be maintained. All three reduce to one series of individual differences, which adds to our classification a new element, that of time. This, again, seems fundamental, and may be made our third basis of classification.

Meumann's attention types are then reducible to three pairs, showing differences in (a) degree of concentration, (b) rapidity of adaptation, and, (c) time for which concentration can be maintained. His other types are either not clearly differentiated from these, or are reducible to other factors than differences in the qualities of attention shown. In terms of Titchener's definition of attention, these would mean individual differences in the degree of clearness with which ideas can be apprehended, differences in the rapidity with which clearness is attained, and in the time for which it endures. So far as the objects of attention are concerned, we might add to these a fourth pair of types, that consisting of individuals in whom attention tends to be directed to those objects interesting in themselves (involuntary type), and that made up of individuals whose attention is motivated by indirect results (voluntary type). But these types are not conditioned, as are the others, by differences in the nature of the attention itself, but rather by environment and education, are very complex, and probably exist in most degrees in all individuals.

Regarding the existence of these attention types among children, Meumann says, as the result of his experiments, in substance: Attention among children is rather distributed over a great number of objects than concentrated. This does not

depend, as with adults, on the greater number of objects that can be clearly apprehended, but on the instability of childish attention: It is not, as with adults, a sign of superiority, but of weakness. Children are much more easily distracted than adults, and, the younger the child, the easier the distraction. There are, of course, great individual differences, the attention of a gifted child being sometimes stronger than that of a dull man. Most children show typically fluctuating attention, fixed attention not developing until the eleventh or twelfth year. Children with fixed attention show more exact observation and better memory. Children are, of course, characterized by greater involuntary attention, but they can here attain great concentration, as witness children at play. Adaptation is slower with children, attention is more dynamic than static, and their attention is more easily fatigued. The inhibitory energy of concentration is less with the child. The bodily accompaniments of attention are strong up to the twelfth or thirteenth year. This shows plainly, since the attention of the child is weaker, that the play of motor processes is not a measure of the effects of attention, or of the degree of attention itself. Experiments are not yet definite enough in most cases to give definite years as stages in the development of attention. Attention types are not so clearly differentiated with children as with adults—the reverse of image types.

Phrased in the terminology which we have adopted, all this would mean that degree of concentration, rapidity of adaptation and duration of concentration are less with children than with adults, and that individual differences in these three respects are less clearly marked with them.

As regards pedagogical applications, this field is as yet too untried for much to be said with precision. Yet one important fact does emerge—that in all qualities of attention there are very great individual differences. Any educational system which would expect the same attention from all pupils, either in degree or in duration, or which would expect all pupils to adapt themselves with the same degree of quickness to new tasks, is manifestly unscientific. This is a truism as regards pupils of different ages, but it must not be forgotten that it also holds true among pupils of the same age and grade. Requirements must, from the nature of the case, be more or less elastic for optimum results.

III. Conditions and Effects of Attention. What are the conditions which tend to make one idea clear to the exclusion of others? Too often this question is answered by simply saying that we attend to the interesting. This is no answer at all unless we carefully distinguish what is meant by interest. Dr. Burnham has pointed out (14) that the word interest is

used in two senses; first, to mean a permanent mental possession, like an interest in music, and second, to mean the feeling of organic adjustment to a situation that comes with attention. In the second, the usual sense of the term, interest is not a condition of attention, but the feeling side of the process. In this sense of the word, we do not attend because we are interested, we are interested when we attend. If the word is used in the other sense, we mean that there are in consciousness certain ideas, certain predisposing feeling tones, certain biological factors, which make the passage of some ideas into the *Blickpunkt* easier than that of others. These factors are relatively permanent, determined by both racial and individual experience. This more or less permanent "set" of consciousness we will make our first condition of attention.

For a second condition there ought to be added in this connection the temporary condition of the individual, both physical and mental, at the time the stimulus is given — mood, fatigue, state of health, physical and mental tonus.

Titchener (62) distinguishes in addition the following conditions: The intensity of the stimulus, its quality, its temporal relations, especially repetition and suddenness, the advantage which a moving stimulus has over one at rest, the condition of novelty or strangeness, the presence in consciousness of corresponding ideas, the accommodation of the organs of sense to receive the stimulus, the absence or cessation of a continued stimulus. All experimental results agree practically as to these conditions, most differences being in matters of wording.

No revolutionary pedagogical applications follow from the statement of these conditions. Their applications are for the most part obvious, and have been long recognized. The analysis of the sense in which interest may be said to be a condition of attention, that things are not interesting in themselves, but because of the experience which we bring to them, is merely another statement of what is coming to be a truism —that one pupil's pedagogical meat is another's poison. The condition of movement of stimulus recalls the interest of young people in anything that goes, and suggests the use of dynamic presentation wherever possible; the use of toys, of moving models, and a utilization of bodily activities to a much greater extent than has been done in the past. The principles of novelty and of the presence in consciousness of corresponding ideas give in application of course the old familiar principle of proceeding from the known to the unknown.

The principle of the accommodation of the organs of sense is a plea for the attitude of attention in the classroom, and the whole discussion of the physiological side of attention shows the importance of this principle.

In discussing the effects of attention in consciousness we may follow, in the main, the classification of Pillsbury (49). In this case also, there is general agreement among investigators.

1. It seems established that only one thing can be attended to at once. Some of the experimental evidences for this conclusion have been noted above.

2. Attention is unstable, fluctuating, as the rain of stimuli favor now this activity, now that. What seems attention to one object for a longer or shorter time is really a series of attentions to the different features of the object.

3. Attention hastens the entrance of the idea attended to into consciousness.

4. Rapidity of movement is accelerated — reaction time is shortened.

5. Attention dominates the association of ideas; ideas not congruous with the subject attended to are inhibited.

6. Experiments in learning show that the retention of an idea once attended to is better if the attention is not immediately after turned to some other active task. Recall depends on attention previously paid, and recognition on attention at the time.

7. Attention tends to pass into movement. The clear idea is the one to which reactions take place.

8. To this series ought to be added the effect of attention to ideas of a given sort on the mental and indirectly on the physical condition of the individual at a given time.

One application on which some stress ought to be laid is that of the motor reaction of attention. This reaction ought, according to most modern theories, to be regarded, not as cause nor as effect of attention, but as one of its essential elements. If we suppress, says Lay (39), the motor aspect of attention, it is attention no longer. Ribot's doctrine of attention as essentially a motor phenomenon is well known (51). Now the physiological expression involved in attention brings about what Lay calls a "circular reaction," so that the process of attention is further facilitated. It follows that vigorous expression of attention is a means of strengthening it. Meumann (43) agrees in general with this position, but thinks that children may easily carry this motor reaction too far. Adjustment of the sense apparatus does not necessarily mean that attention is present; over-energetic adjustment may lead to distraction. Indeed, if energetic expression of attention were the key to education, the traditional Chinese school ought to be the educational institution par excellence. But, while experiments like those of Münsterberg with lifted weights (46) seem to show that a certain distraction may sharpen the attention so that it does even better work than

before, Cohn and Gent have shown (18) that, in the case of testimony taken a week after pictures had been shown while the subjects were distracted by writing number series, as well as with material presented in an auditory way, there was a reduction in the number of objects remembered as compared with testimony taken under similar conditions concerning similar material presented without distraction. This lessened accuracy was not spread evenly over the whole series, but seemed to affect most the less obvious details; those to which closer application was necessary. Both over-emphatic expression of attention and sensory distraction, ought, then, to be avoided, and that pedagogy which would argue to the contrary is not well founded.

IV. Attention and other Mental Functions. If attention is as fundamental in the mental life as we have been supposing, we should expect to find it standing in close correlation with the other factors of the mental life, and especially with that indefinite but very real something which we call "general intelligence." It would be rather to be expected *a priori* that high intelligence would be correlated with, and more or less conditioned by, high development in some or all of the qualities of the attention — in concentration, adaptation or duration. And, furthermore, a high possibility of attention might be thought to stand in correlation with high development of other functions, like association and memory. But the answers to these two questions do not by any means stand out with clearness from the experimental data at hand.

In the experiments aiming at the establishment of correlations, it has not been usual to investigate adequately the degree of attention, which has been rather presupposed to be maximal. And when attention has been considered, it has usually been as a whole, and not in its different functions of degree of concentration, quickness of adaptation and duration of concentration. As a consequence of this, any results dealing with attention must be arrived at indirectly, through experiments dealing with factors which may be shown to be more or less closely correlated with attention. This again throws us back to our second question: are there processes so correlated? The two questions can be answered only by data which at best are scanty, obscure and confusing. But before attempting to give any answer, the usual method of procedure in such experiments ought to be noted.

The term "intelligence," if we are seeking to establish correlations between specific factors and intelligence, is so indefinite as to cause difficulty at the start. The usual method followed has been to assume a certain grade of intelligence, usually by experimenting with children whose intelligence

has been graded by their masters as "high" or "low." Then it is ascertained in what functions the former are better developed, and, if the latter show weakness in these functions, a correlation between grade of intelligence and development of these functions is supposed, and the results subjected to a more or less mathematical treatment to show its existence. In a similar way the correlations between separate functions are arrived at. The method, it will be seen, is open to serious objections, both on account of the biased and *a priori* way of assigning intellectual grades to the subjects at the start, and on account of the lack of agreement as to the mathematical treatment which should be given to the results in order to establish correlations.

First, then, what do the experimental data show as to correlation between attention and degree of intelligence.

Binet (7) after a long series of tests, sensory, motor and those predominently intellectual, finds that pupils chosen as intelligent show a quicker adaptation of the attention — a correlation between intelligence and one of the fundamental qualities of the attention. Consoni (19) finds that his normal children surpassed his sub-normal in what he calls "dynamic attention", and defines as follows — "a series of attention acts quite near together, but distinct and due to stimuli of varied nature acting through a short time." This again suggests a correlation between quickness of adaptation and degree of intelligence. Winteler (66), working with only eight pupils, found no such correlation.

Many investigators have sought to determine whether any correlation exists between shortness of reaction time and intelligence. Just how largely individual differences in reaction time mean individual differences in degree of attention is, as we have seen, an open question, so that a correlation between reaction time and intelligence might not, even if established, show a correlation between degree of attention and intelligence. Reaction time and intelligence have been thought correlated by Gilbert (29), Kirkpatrick (36), and Winteler (66), while the correlation is denied by Binet (7), Binet and Vaschide (10), Bagley (3), and Cattell, Farrand and Wissler (68). Such contradictory results show well the imperfect nature of correlation experiments. It is possible that the significant thing for intelligence may not be so much quickness of reaction time as the smallness of the mean variation, as suggested by Oehrn (48), which would show uniformity of concentration.

Griffing (30) and Winteler (66) find that intelligent pupils have a wider attention-span, which really, as we have seen, means a greater ability for perceptive synthesis and greater rapidity of fluctuation — adaptation — of the attention.

Dresslar (23) finds among intelligent children a greater susceptibility to illusions of size and weight. Seashore (54) finds no correlation between intelligence and susceptibility to illusion. This greater suggestibility, if shown to exist, would suggest in part, a greater power of concentration of attention, as shown in the inhibition of other ideas.

Binet and Simon (9), in a long and complex series of tests, found a general correlation existing between the higher mental faculties as shown in such activities as the repetition of long phrases, drawing from memory, filling gaps in texts, response to abstract questions, definition of abstract terms. It is obvious that in such tests all three qualities of the attention must play a large part. DeCroly and Legard (22) repeated the tests with the same general result. Seashore (54) and the Columbia investigators (65) find no correlation between faculties, or between them and intelligence. Spearman (57) criticises these last attempts as not carefully guarded against error, and as not given a rigidly mathematical treatment. He himself, working with English school children, carefully graded as to age, and in similar environment, finds a distinct correlation between acuteness of pitch discrimination, judgment of weights and degrees of brightness, and between all these and degree of intelligence, as established by school studies, by natural capacity (calculated by taking the difference between rank in age and in studies), by the general impression made on the teachers as to brightness or dullness, and by estimated common sense, as checked by two companions. Now it is significant that those tests of sensory discrimination which he used, and found to correlate with intelligence, are all dependent to a high degree on power of concentration of the attention. It seems fair to conclude that at least a part of the correlation which he finds is due to the working of the attention, showing more strongly in the more intelligent pupils. It would probably be rather intensity of concentration than quickness of adaptation which is involved. If this be the case, here again we have attention correlating itself with intelligence.

Ebbinghaus (25), proceeding from the theory that intelligence is shown in the combination by the subject of materials presented to him, used the method of having his subjects insert words which had been omitted from a text. Here, too, attention would enter in all three qualities.

Meumann (42) worked with 800 school children in tests of memory and reproduction with relation to intelligence. He gave as tests of memory series of concrete and of abstract words, and tested children of different ages for their retention. Secondly, words were given and the children told to write the first associated word that suggested itself. The quality of

associations alone was regarded. He concludes that intelligence shows the same differences in different ages of development that it does between individuals of high and low intelligence, and that it consists of the following factors; (a) capacity for apprehending abstract relations, (b) exactness, precision, care and self-contol, (c) a certain energy of concentration of attention, (d) memory functioning, especially the strength of the abstract memory, (e) richness and originality of ideas as shown in reproduction. Here again is a correlation between attention and intelligence.

Ziehen (69), reporting the tests which he uses with abnormal subjects, says that no test of intelligence is complete without a test of attention, and that we ought to look less to attention to sensations than to ideas.

Out of this contradictory mass of data there seems to emerge little that is definite. The weight of evidence, however, would seem to show that there does exist a certain correlation between intelligence and the qualities of attention, though precisely the extent or nature of this correlation has not been shown. The great pedagogical value of further studies here is obvious.

Little work has been done which bears directly on our second question, that of the relation between a high degree of attention and high development in the other mental functions. The experiments just cited may throw some indirect light on the question. In addition, Boas, in his tests of Worcester school children reported by Bolton (11), found a correlation between the memory for numbers and the power of concentrated attention. Bourdon (12) found a correlation between the recognition of words repeated in different series, between marking letters on a page, and the number of associations with a stimulus word arising in one minute. Since the first two are dependent on attention, recognition on past attention and the marking of letters largely on attention at the moment, these experiments seem to show a correlation between power of attention and power of association.

Regarding the whole matter of correlation, then, little more can be said than that certain correlations have been suggested, but hardly one established. Those which have been suggested seem in many ways to point to the importance of individual differences in attention for individual intelligence.

V. Training of the Attention. The existence of great and admitted differences in the powers of attention among adults give rise to the question: can the attention be improved by education? Obviously individual differences cannot be obviated, but can they be lessened at all? No final answer to the question can be given with the data yet determined,

yet it may not be amiss to raise the question. Improvement of the attention itself must be carefully distinguished from change in the objects with which attention deals. The child who shows intense attention to play may later show the same intense attention to his studies, yet we would not be justified *a priori* in speaking of the change as an improvement in his powers of attention, but merely as a change in the material with which his attention deals. The real question is rather—can education cause a change in the individual in the degree of clearness with which ideas are apprehended, in the rapidity of the adaptation of the attention to ideas remote from the previous current of thought, and in the length of time for which a series of ideas can, under the most favorable conditions, be kept before consciousness.

In view of the exceedingly fundamental nature of attention, of the intimacy with which it is bound up with all the operations of consciousness, and of the closeness with which it must depend on the fundamental properties of the nervous substrate, it would seem almost justifiable to answer the question of improvement in the negative. What has been really changed to enable us to give, as we say, closer attention, is the number of associations which keep different aspects of the same material longer before the mind. It is the binding together of more and more attentive links through association into what seems to us a unitary attentive act. The reflex irritability of the nervous system may remain the same or even decrease, and yet through associations one's powers of application to the daily task may all the time increase.

Summary

I. No exact experiments have as yet been devised for measuring attention, either directly or indirectly. Particularly is this true of the degree of attention shown. All conclusions which depend on exact measurements of attention for their validity must therefore be accepted with care.

II. There exist great individual differences in attention, which seem to reduce to three types; differences in degree of concentration, in quickness of adaptation, and in duration of concentration. Individual differences are less clearly marked with children than with adults.

III. There is general agreement as to the conditions and the effects of attention.

IV. Certain correlations between individual powers of attention and intelligence, and between attention and other mental functions, seem to suggest themselves, but there is considerable uncertainty as to the nature and extent of these.

V. Attention cannot be improved except within certain limits, and possibly in the individual not at all.

VI. Pedagogical applications which follow from the experimental data so far attained are for the most part merely confirmations of results already attained by other methods, with possibly more emphasis on individual differences, on care as to the proper motor expressions of attention, and on the fundamental importance of attention for all education.

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PHYSICAL AND MORAL TRAINING

By James Frederick Rogers, M. D.

In the late revival of interest in man's physical welfare much has been said of the relation of physical development and health to moral growth and condition. There has been, as was to be expected, on the part of enthusiasts for physical education, some stretching of this relationship, and one might infer from some of their statements that our athletes and gentlemen of the prize ring were the most moral of men, all others standing at least a few steps below on the stairs leading to moral heights. Though a good deal more than mere muscle and nerve, or brute energy, must go to shape a man of superior moral nature, he must, in some ways, remain more nearly allied to the animal, or the "lower" man, than our ingrained ascetic ideas would have us believe, and at bottom the general theory of the close relationship of physique and morals is correct, and the exaggerations of the point are pardonable. We cannot laud the beating of some one else in a game as the most highly moral end in life; though, where the methods are above suspicion and there is no better purpose to which the bodily forces can be exercised, an athletic event is a play which embodies the fundamentals of conduct, the struggle for existence and supremacy, the principle by which life has been previously perfected and which still holds good in modified form in daily life. St. Paul used the athletic game as symbolic of the Christian life, though it certainly typifies much more accurately the common creed of "get what you can, hold what you may, and the devil take the hindmost." This latter idea is so "natural" and is so mixed up with ideals which go by the name of Christian that moral conduct might sometimes be guessed to be of double nature, and in a sense it is.

Perhaps a simple, practical definition of a superior moral man would be one who, while abundantly able to care for his own bodily needs, yet does a maximum of good to his fellows. By the very defining of morality as having to do with conduct, we at once give the physical condition of the individual a conspicuous place, for no conduct goes on without nutrition, muscle, and nerve, and it stands to reason that the better developed and co-ordinated these physical processes, *other things being equal*, the more capable a man is of the highest moral conduct; for not only can he the more easily carry on the labor by which he obtains his daily bread, but he has abundant

resources left for carrying out work for others, and for being a buoyant social creature.

Any observer must note the frequency of those about him who scarcely have vitality to obtain a living, and who consequently are too much exhausted physically to be other than cross and irritable as companions. They can add little or nothing to the general welfare. Such are often aware of their shortcoming, and seek relief in Christian Science, which may help them to imagine they are not physically inferior, or in the New Thought cults which assuage the misery a little by reducing the friction from worry and discontent,—attitudes of mind their physical state makes spontaneous.

The exponents of physical improvement thus have a very powerful argument for the worth of their particular cause from a moral standpoint without the necessity of exaggeration by way of example. Physical development does not give a man a higher moral nature, but it allows him to exercise that nature if he has it. The strong frame and fine muscular development, and, above all, the competent unfolding of the nutritive powers, cannot make a Washington or a Lincoln, a Moody, or a Brooks, but without those qualities they would have accomplished far less than they did, and as invalids or semi-invalids they might have proved a burden to themselves and more or less of a nuisance to their friends.

Anything which interferes with bodily growth and with that normal balancing of the bodily energies which we call health, must be productive, if not of immorality, at least of diminished capability for the highest moral attainment, and, viewed from this standpoint, the matter of the conduct of the public school with regard to these fundamental ends, is of the utmost seriousness. School authorities cannot, nor can the state as yet, control the physical care of the child before its entrance upon school work, and only to a limited extent does it, at present, control the physical conditions at home during the years of school life. At present it must admit every child that comes who is not positively diseased. It ought to take this fact into consideration and limit its educative endeavors so that no child will in any sense be overburdened by his school tasks. A recent work on public school teaching warns against producing the condition of a "deep sense of misery in the morning, one or more insistent ideas which cannot be thrown off, and so thorough a wearing out that the subject becomes anæsthetic to fatigue, . . . is so weary that he cannot feel his own weariness." The author of the work calls this symptom-complex a sign of "dangerous fatigue." We think any neurologist would call it a condition of extreme exhaustion from which the brain cells would slowly, if ever, fully recover. Meanwhile the school goes on and the pupil will find

a harder task than ever in trying to recover lost ground, even if he is allowed to "heed" the warning and give his nervous system opportunity to repair the damage as best it may. No such limit for school work should even be thought of, and pedagogical drilling carried to such extremes is producing more harm than good, from a moral as well as other standpoint. While the schoolroom is a place in which the superior child may excel, it is not a place where the weak should be pushed to the wall.

We hear a great deal about the effects of adenoids and other local imperfections, but they are as nothing to the crippling that results from damaged nerve cells. Adenoids can be removed. The nerve cells can hardly reach their former condition even if they can have the time for recuperation.

Perhaps school children are seldom driven to this point of "dangerous fatigue." If so, it is not always to the credit of the school that they are not; Nature has a way of defending herself, in the average case at least. The very heaping of lessons suggested by mature ideals and so, ill-fitted in quantity or quality, upon a child which is in no state of physical or mental maturity to cope easily with it all, tends to a positive immorality of a vicious type in the way of lying and all sorts of underhanded methods to shirk the disagreeable task. Such conduct is natural under the circumstances. The child which rises above this sort of thing is very unusual in having a nervous machinery capable of the work of an adult, or has risen above nature for the time being in a precocity for which he must pay the penalty later. The mental machinery of a fifteen-year-old child balks at heroic doses of The Princess or Sir Roger de Coverly, material suitable for the adult and for the exceptional child mind, along with more of other work than it can do well; for instinct tells him that he cannot do all this and have sufficient energy left over for needed bodily play. Since he can in no way rid himself of his burden, he does his work more or less poorly, and returns to Adamic first principles of putting up a bluff to get out of a bad mess, and not only lies, but conducts himself like seven devils besides. We have heard teachers of much experience lament the diminished moral state exhibited by school children, and while teachers may have always felt pessimistic in dealing with the frailities of human nature, and while the increase in inferior foreigners in our midst, and other factors, may have tinged the state of things somewhat for the worse, the writer believes that the overburdening of the physical resources of the child, and in the city a diminution of his physical powers for mental work, have had much to do with this breaking-the-commandments form of immorality.

The child who toils beyond his physical resources in deal-

ing with lessons fitted in quantity and quality for adults, is worse off in the end than the one who shirks, if there is danger of his reaching anywhere near the point of "dangerous fatigue" described by the practical (?) educator. It is certain that those pupils who cannot be made to stand high in their studies are in less danger of any possible injury from nerve strain, and it is often disconcerting to the educator to discover how well they get along in life after leaving school.

It will quite properly be said that school work cannot be made to please the fancy of the pupil; that its pills cannot all be sugar coated. This is perfectly true, but whatever the school does, it has no business to lay on tasks which will lessen the growth or injure the health of any child which it receives through its doors. Like the medical art, it should do no harm if it cannot do good. Above all, it is bound to consider the child as a child, and not assume that he can master adult work until he is grown. The child has to put a great deal of energy into growth, if he is to grow—a fact which we often forget. The growing, or would-be growing child, is not always taken into the sessions of those who lay out his school work for him—only mature minds and bodies meet there. Neither is the opinion of the teacher who deals directly with the pupils, always consulted in such sessions.

We have said nothing of the effects of end-of-the-term examinations for passing. This has been harped on many times though not enough. These and other swords of Damocle, trouble always the physically delicate and those who from sickness may have lost much time from school. The occasional suicides from such worries hint at the mental, and so bodily distress which must go on among the more sensitive children, who need no incentives, or who may not be physically competent for their tasks,—a distress which must hinder, through friction, the accomplishment of what otherwise is possible.

Those children in whom there is a superior development of the nervous structure for mental work are the salt of the earth if only the normal growth of their nutritive structures can be kept up to the top notch, but it is just these that are in peril of "dangerous fatigue." Their superior performances tickle our educational pride by being what we would like all to accomplish; by coming up to adult standards. The average child will take care of himself by natural protective methods of mediocre work, or sheer disappointing stupidity.

So long as these two classes must be thrown together, the former cannot be neglected, and the latter will not be helped by any ill adjustment of studies or methods to physical conditions.

Moral education is said to be the end of all education; if so, from every point of view, physical education, preventive as well as helpful, looms up with growing importance.

THE RANK AND FILE IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS[1]

By M. O'Brien Harris

In the recent enthusiasm for educational reform many classes and institutions have received consideration—University Colleges have been fostered, Training Colleges and Systems have increased in number (I refer to those for Secondary Teachers), Pupil Teachers Centres have been improved out of existence and an almost new type of Secondary School developed in their stead. Skilled investigators have placed before the public the provision that exists for education of the higher types; whilst in your pages has been a discussion of the treatment of our infants. In all this there is hope for the future, and yet there seems to me to be a class of children largely neglected—I mean those attending the public elementary schools.

I do not ignore the "ladder to the University", nor the generous schemes of scholarships provided for the fortunate few with brains and with a sufficiently advantageous environment to enable them to use these brains. We may, perhaps rightly, pride ourselves that we are beginning to make provision for the education of those who are to be, in the future, the sergeants, if not the captains, of industry. We may, for the present, assume that these are receiving good training for their future work, and that the nation will in due time reap an interest of efficiency for the principal invested in their education. But there still remains the rank and file of the children of the nation, the 90, 95 or in some cases the 100 per cent. of the children beginning life in an elementary school. When the 'capacity-catching' scheme has carried off the more intellectual children there still remains not only the larger number, but those constituting the nation's greatest problem. 'To him that hath shall be given' is exemplified in the child to whose ability there is added opportunity; 'from him that hath not shall be taken away' is the fate of the school and of the child of ordinary type. The elementary school thus depleted of its cleverest children is severely ignored by the public—unless indeed, the question of religious education is raised. But in London and the large towns where no such question arises, the right working of these schools is of vital importance.

[1] While this paper is devoted primarily to a problem in English education it has suggestions of general importance.

The children remaining in these schools fall into two divisions. In the first place there are all the children under eleven or twelve years of age as yet undifferentiated, receiving in common the groundwork of education, the future structure still undecided. The training of these children should, it seems to me, be not only as at present the main aim of the elementary school, but its only work. On the other hand, there are also at the present time the children above the age of eleven, who have been weighed in the Scholarship balance and found wanting, who are to finish their education as elementary school children. These children of the older section are the ones who appear to be neglected by all the schemes recently put forward. They form a class distinct from the 'primary' children and are, perhaps, even more ready for a change in their training than the more favored ones selected for 'secondary' education. They constitute the class on whom I should like for the present to concentrate attention.

A slight provision is made for a small proportion of these children in the Higher Grade or Higher Elementary School, and this, it may be argued, affords the solution of the matter. By no means — the more children are taken away for higher education from the ordinary Board schools, the worse is the lot, educationally, of those that remain. They are of very varying needs, these children from eleven to fifteen, and yet in many cases they are not numerous enough to form more than one or two classes. Their work brings no *Kudos* to the school, there is nothing to be gained professionally from special care bestowed on their training — they are in a sense 'nobody's children'. And yet they are the coming generation, the Parents potentially of the succeeding generation; in fact they will constitute the London of the twentieth century. It is at this stage that our schools seem to me, as I think of the typical London boy or girl, to have failed in the past. In this stage there lies, from the increasing depletion for higher education, the great danger, and, at the same time, the great opportunity for the future.

Among these boys and girls are the admitted failures, the semi- or wholly defiant, roughly talking, coarsely acting ones, whose fourteenth birthday is welcomed by themselves as a release from school restraint, by their parents as the full entrance into the wage-earning period, and even by the most conscientious teacher as a relief from ever-present responsibility and fruitless anxiety. They seem to carry on the reckless, savage irresponsibility of the child stage of development, and to add to it the lower grade powers of youth without the control of the dawning sense of reason. Others, a second class, hardly less discouraging, pass through and out of our schools

without appearing to reach any degree of power or life. And what even of the successes? the bright, well-drilled intelligent boys and girls?

They are found later in the lower clerkships, and as intelligent warehousemen, or skilled workers, as shophands and typewriters — passable in their business hours but in their recreations hardly more refined than their duller comrades who are the drudges of the London labor market. Surely some one has blundered!

The schools cannot do everything. It is unfair to lay on them responsibility which belongs to the crushing influence of the machinery of industry and commerce and to the deadening environment of lower and even middle class London life. And yet under different conditions of organization and administration much might be done. There must be some powers of body and mind to which between the ages of eleven and fourteen appeal can be made, some faculty which can be so developed as to give boys and girls an interest in something outside themselves and their animal needs, a respect for themselves and their bodies which shall show itself in stronger and purer lives. To these powers and faculties it is the duty of the School to appeal.

Improved teaching in the 'primary' part of the school—such as should become possible even under present conditions if the 'Suggestions to teachers' recently issued by the Education Department are adopted, such as will be still more possible when the physical needs of the child are met by suitable food and clothing, by the opportunity for exercise and cleanliness afforded by a daily bath or swim—will lighten the task of the older section. Yet there will always remain special problems very different from the problems of earlier school life.

These children (12 to 14 or 15) are as different from those of the primary stage (8 to 12) in the treatment they require, as they are in size and build of body. And even their change in size and form does not indicate at all adequately the deeper changes physically and psychologically. The earlier period has been one of but slow growth for the fundamental bones and muscles of the body, whilst the accessory muscles, *e. g.*, those of hands and fingers, face and throat have been at a most susceptible stage for training in accuracy of movement, manipulation and speech. On the other hand, the period under consideration is one of rapid increase in height and weight for both boys and girls, the most active growth period coming a little earlier for girls (11-13) than in the case of boys (13-15). It is again, as it was at the kindergarten age, the turn of the larger muscles—a fact which indicates that there must be a corresponding change in employment. Much of the

work of the smaller muscles requiring fine muscular adjustment which was rightly undertaken in the primary stages may now be harmful to the nervous system if unduly pressed.

The brain, which had almost reached its full size at the age of about seven years, now practically ceases growth in size, and prepares for that change in complexity of structure which corresponds to the power of reasoning—a change which is still considered, as it was in the days of Aristotle, not to come till about the age of fourteen. Surely there is in this psycho-physiological fact an indication that when provision has been made for exceptional cases nothing is gained by pressing on the average child an intellectual training for which he is not yet ready. The failure already alluded to of the ordinary school course in the case of the average town child bears out this view.

The problem before us is to consider what training should, for the typical child, replace ordinary bookwork. Unfortunately, no such course of training seems yet to have been framed on an adequate scale. Unfortunately, too, those whose duty it is to devise such a scheme have not as a rule the experience requisite. Being themselves highly endowed intellectually, they have not passed through such a stage of intellectual pause in their own history; nor, as framers and administrators of codes and regulations, do they come into touch directly with those whose school days end in this dreamy twilight. The pity of it, for the children whom we are considering, is that with the age of fourteen closes their intellectual opportunity for life. This is perhaps some excuse for the stress that has in the past been laid on the would-be intellectual type of education. But alas! the well-meant kindness has merely caused a reaction. Not only has the door been closed, but against it lies the great stone of the school-formed distaste for mental application.

The same result is to be seen in much the same form in all walks of life, but in other cases the door of intellectual hope is not so early closed.

Two interesting questions rather apart from our main consideration, though not without bearing upon it, may be raised here. Their solution is left to the reader. In the first place, is it entirely due to different endowment of brain power that intellectual life is at such different levels of intensity in different people? Secondly, do we find here the reason for the zest, unparalleled to-day, shown by the untaught artisan of the thirties and forties for matters political, scientific and intellectual? the reason for the emptiness deplored in our Evening Continuation Schools, and the cold reception of University Extension by the working classes, whilst many men and

women of the past generation, without ' schooling,' have educated themselves even in the world of books ?

The first step towards solving our problem would be to recognize that a period of special importance has been reached, to transfer from the primary school, not only, as at present, the children destined for secondary and higher elementary schools, but those also who are unprepared for education according to either of these types. This would mean the formation of a new kind of school ; although readjustment of departments might obviate the necessity for new buildings. It would mean a new departure and the recognition that it is worth the nation's while to give careful thoughts and special attention to the apparantly less gifted of her children. The nation needs that each child should be developed just in the manner that he requires, and it may be that from the more slowly maturing brains of these children there may be produced as good an adult type as from more precocious ones. It may be that some Miltons have been kept mute and inglorious by the deadening results of our present school system ; some Newtons may have remained in the stupid schoolboy stage all their lives.

To the new kind of school, the term secondary should, I think, be applied, as well as to the schools now known as Higher Elementary. The old restriction of the word 'secondary' to schools independent of public money has gone, and the term now connotes schools which provide at least a regular course for pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age; whilst the term 'higher secondary' seems gaining ground for those schools which keep their pupils to the ages of seventeen and eighteen.

The present limit of the elementary school career, whether in an ordinary or Higher Elementary School, is fifteen years, an optional limit, it is true, the compulsory age being still fourteen, but one which should in the near future be universal. Hence the crucial distinction between the Elementary and the Secondary School is this one year of school life. Far be it from me to underrate its value, or minimize its effect on curriculum and methods. But the distinction is a small one, and artificial, as compared with the great physical and psychological one which separates the child of 'primary' age from the boy or girl entering on the stage preparatory to adolescent development—ready that is to say for the secondary stage of his education. The Higher Elementary school, then, should be known as the Junior Secondary School, and the new type of school which I here advocate might be the Lower Secondary—or perhaps the National or People's secondary school.

This is not merely a question of name. It involves an

alteration of focus, perhaps even a new way of looking at things. It involves the recognition of the right of every child to education, not merely in a vague sense, but to the education fitted to his age and capabilities—(1) to primary, *i. e.*, undifferentiated education up to the age of about eleven or twelve; (2) to secondary education of the type which, having due regard to the time which he is to remain at school, makes the best possible use of that time for the development of his powers. For the child who can be kept at school till the age of sixteen either by his municipality or by his parents, this will be found in the Secondary Schools; for the more intellectual of the children who must leave school at fifteen, it will be found in the Junior Secondary School; for all others the Lower Secondary School must make careful provision.

Let me now indicate something of the lines on which such a school might, in the first case, be planned, for London or one of the larger towns—leaving later developments and variations to develop as experience is gained.

It is assumed that a good foundation, physically and mentally, has been laid in the primary school; and that (let me repeat it) the more intellectual children have been drafted off into the Secondary schools, whether of the ordinary or of the Junior (*i. e.*, Higher Elementary) type, leaving the majority, the rank and file, for the Lower Secondary School. Such a school must deal largely with concrete things, the everyday objects of various departments of life, not in order that their study should be an end in itself, but that it may at once stimulate the mental powers and afford them matter to work on. In the case of these scholars the brain requires stimulation through the senses in a manner unnecessary for those with greater power of abstract thought. The object of the school being to send forth citizens who shall be responsible members of society, leading thoughtful, self-respecting lives, the spirit of responsibility and self-reliance must be fostered wherever possible. Since the children are to go into the world early, they should, earlier than in other schools, be trained to govern and control themselves, not merely to keep order under the eye of a teacher. This will not be so difficult of attainment as at first sight appears, if the work of the school is so contrived that the children may enjoy it for its own sake. If we succeed in finding the right work, this will almost necessarily be the case.

Since there is but little intellectual basis for common intellectual work, and since, as will be seen later, mental work is to arise from technical, there can be but little doubt that for boys and girls the curriculum must be different. Whatever the value, under ideal conditions, of co-education for all, or

even under present conditions for the somewhat similar mental training of intellectual boys and girls, co-education seems to me unsuitable for boys and girls of the type under consideration — as things are now in our great towns, with their complex economic conditions, and with the staff at present allowed for schools.

As regards boys I must, to a large extent, content myself with general principles, leaving details to those who have specialized in the training of boys. Much might be learned from industrial and reformatory schools, perhaps even from the experiments in vacation schools.

In physical training it must be remembered, that this is a period for the larger rather than the smaller muscles to develop. Who does not know the awkwardness and angularity of both boys and girls at some part of this stage unless the right exercise is provided? The small muscles must not be wearied with fine manipulation; while for the larger there should be a continuation of the free exercises and daily swim of the primary school, with the addition of suitable gymnasium work. In connection with these there might be simple instruction in physiology, dietetics, and the laws of health. Wood and metal work might be taken up, as well as simple drawing from nature and design; all lending themselves to simple mathematical calculation, but above all tending towards the good and beautiful craftsmanship.

In music, the work of the primary school in teaching class singing and giving the opportunity of listening to good music should be continued.

Intellectual work should be comparatively simple, but with difficulties to be honestly faced. The object lesson of the primary school would give place to work in a classroom or laboratory specially fitted for a simple physical course, in connection with which a few fundamental mathematical ideas would be developed geometrically or arithmetically. This would involve simple use of easy decimals and percentages — the whole of the arithmetic necessary unless practice in accurate addition of money were considered advisable.

The ordinary history or geography lesson might resolve itself into an introdnction to the growth of the British Empire and its institutions, with special reference to London (or the place where the school was situated) and the duty of its citizens. The Houses of Parliament, the Guildhall, Westminster Abbey and places of similar historic value, with others of local interest, should be visited once or twice in the three or four years' course, and some form of election, parliamentary or municipal, might once a year be carried out to initiate the boys into the mysteries of voting-paper and ballot-box.

The study of English should aim at making wholesome literature a pleasure. Opportunity for listening to good reading or for browsing in a library might, as a rule, replace the ordinary reading lesson; whilst occasional elocution lessons would discover the dramatic powers of some and improve the enunciation of all.

Here in literary, as before in manual and musical work, we may cross the boundary line and pass into the regions of art. In each case the boy must be put in the path towards the best in art, and even led some steps of the way; so that he may, if he have eyes, see something of its charms, and that he may not leave school ignorant of the possibilities of his nature.

For girls a considerable part of the course would be similar. Their science, however, and much of their mental work would centre round the domestic rather than the mechanical arts. As at present, there would be laundry and needlework, also cookery, hygiene and dietetics being taught in connection with these subjects. A very little un-technical physiology might also be linked to this work, and to the physical exercises of the girls. For this there should be simple gymnasium work, and a course including organized games and well-balanced movements leading up to suitable forms of dancing. The revival of the old-fashioned custom of reading aloud during the practice of needlework would give the opportunity of making acquaintance with a considerable range of interesting literature. As I write there arises the pleasant recollection of my schoolgirl introduction in this way to the following among others, Evangeline, Idylls of the King, Motley's Rise of the Dutch Republic, and Ethics of the Dust.

In mathematics the demands would be even simpler than in the case of boys. The keeping of accounts and the calculation of interest, the measurement of areas and working to scale in garment-cutting, the calculation of dietaries and of prices — these seem to be all that is necessary.

Direct preparation for the responsibilities of maternity is often demanded from the schools. But I think that their work will be done if, in addition to the rousing of the girl's mental faculties, they teach her the care of her own person and of her household surroundings. The former is provided for in the work already mentioned; the latter would be possible in a domestic laboratory or living room of the following type. The capital cost of such a laboratory would not be great; and only a small amount, 20/ to 50/ per annum, perhaps, would be needed for upkeep.

This classroom would be fitted as a living room, and used as such during the afternoon work. It should in the first place, with certain limitations, be furnished according to the

judgment of the senior girls, and should be kept in order and repair for a school year by successive classes of girls.

Cheap oilcloth, such as would doubtless be selected for the floor, would contrast with the good linoleum now supplied to some rooms in the schools — chairs and tables of the ordinary household type, of the neighborhood, used along with a few simple well-made ones specially provided would soon show the weakness of bad workmanship. In the first year the allowance for upkeep would supply curtains, crockery (for use at school functions, *e. g.*, at an At Home to parents in this room), a kettle, and such conveniences as shelving. As the time went the allowance would, by consultation and decision of the class in charge, be spent in replacing and mending worn-out furniture and utensils, and the lesson of cutting one's coat according to the cloth might thus be early illustrated. Accurate accounts would be kept for comparison and criticism from year to year. The keeping of these accounts would in itself be a useful exercise, but their importance would lie in the possibility of their teaching the value of quality in comparison with quantity, showing the frequent connection between the cheap and the nasty, and proving the truth of the not-sufficiently familiar saying, All that glitters is not gold.

As sketched, the scheme for the proposed Lower Secondary Schools may appear dogmatic, but it is put forward merely as suggestive. It is by no means ideal, but nothing to meet existing conditions could be so. It is admittedly limited in intellectual scope, but surely the admission of our future citizens to the antechamber of higher thought is something. At present they seem repelled from even approaching its precincts. It is far from my intention to set up artificial barriers or to exclude any from the privileges of intellectual life. The great joy, the one all-compensating moment for the teacher is when he welcomes some young initiate into the brotherhood of thought. He must not be deprived of one such opportunity. But for the most part, the children sitting in the market-places do not respond. We pipe unto them and they do not dance, we mourn and they lament not. Why? Because our instruments are strange, our speech unfamiliar. We must no longer speak in a strange tongue, we must learn the language of the market place, and introduce it into our schools. Then there will be a response. We shall be able to build up from our at present irresponsive recruits an army whose rank and file shall be fit for the work of our generation; whose successors shall be worthy citizens of 'no mean city'.

THE IDEATIONAL TYPES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN[1]

By S. S. Colvin, University of Illinois

The problem of determining the ideational types of school children and of discovering the course of the development of these types is important in connection with the broader question of the technique and economy of learning, and is thus intimately connected with the field of mental hygiene. I take it, therefore, that no apology is necessary for bringing this subject to the attention of this Conference on Child Welfare.

The investigations that have so far been made concerning this problem are few and lack conclusiveness. One of the reasons for the partial failure of the investigations up to date is due to the fact that the conception in regard to ideational types is inadequate.

It has been too often assumed that there are absolutely distinct types distinguishing various persons in all phases of their thinking; that, for example, one thinks predominatingly in visual, another in auditory and still a third in motor imagery; thus we could say that subject *a* is of a visual, *b* of an auditory and *c* of a motor type. Such a thoroughgoing distinction is not applicable except in extreme cases, and is more often a matter for the mental pathologist than for the psychologist. Most subjects are of a mixed type and, further, most use one kind of imagery in dealing with a given class of material, and still another kind when dealing with a different class. Experiments recently conducted in the Psychological Laboratory at the University of Illinois, show that even such slight differences as the change of the manner of presentation of a series of words may entirely change the ideational type of the observer. Meumann has affirmed that while there may exist a pure visual type, there is no such thing as a pure auditory type. He further observes that most persons think visually when dealing with concrete objects, and in auditory-motor terms when the thought is abstract. It must further be kept in mind that it is extremely difficult to distinguish between auditory and motor imagery and that a large majority of subjects classed as auditory are also speech-motor. Further, when we consider motor imagery, we cannot fail to recognize

[1] An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

the fact that such a term is too general. A person may be speech-motor and not hand-motor. Besides, there is a more general motor type which is neither specifically speech- nor hand-motor. Again, it is to be kept in mind that much of the so-called visual imagery is really eye-motor and is not connected with retinal sensations. As far as other types of ideation are concerned, such as tactile, gustatory, olfactory and organic, their presence in any large measure in our thought processes is doubtful, and their value in effective ideation is slight.

Segal has done more than any other writer to point out the inadequacy of our present conception of ideational types, and has well maintained that the qualitative conception of ideation must be abandoned for a quantitative. The above considerations lead us to the conclusion that the attempt to determine absolute ideational types is hardly likely to succeed, and that the best we can hope to do is to ascertain the predominating type for a given subject in relation to definite classes of sensory or verbal material.

Although this lack of understanding as to what is to be understood by ideational types has been a source of error in investigations in the past, the chief reason for the unsatisfactory character of many of the results so far obtained is doubtless due to the fact that no finally conclusive set of objective tests has yet been devised for determining these types. Titchener gives a long list of such tests in the Instructors Manual of the first volume of his Experimental Psychology, and Meumanu furnishes a comprehensive list in chapter X of his *Vorlesungen*. The various current tests I have attempted to examine critically in an article in the July number of the *Psychological Bulletin*. Here I have maintained that the most valuable tests are those that are either entirely introspective, or in which the objective results are interpreted in terms of the subject's analysis of his mental processes. The objective tests as such are often self-contradictory and many of them are based on partial misconceptions. In my opinion the best methods now employed for determining these types objectively, are the so-called indirect methods, such as noting the direction and nature of errors in memorizing various kinds of material, variously presented. Manifestly little can be hoped from groups of children in the way of accurate self-analysis of their mental processes. Doubtless something may be done through individual questioning by a skilled experimenter, but where mass results are required this is hardly possible. The demand at present is for a number of definite tests that can be applied under controlled conditions in the schoolroom.

The existing objective methods, with others that may be devised, should be tested on subjects whose characteristic imagery has been already determined by introspective methods. These tests should then be applied to school children and further tested to discover such tests as are self-consistent, and these latter should then be made the standard tests for the schoolroom. I believe that in this way it would be possible to determine whether a given child under certain definite school conditions employed predominatingly in thinking visual, auditory-motor or motor imagery; if visual, whether concrete or verbal, if auditory-motor, whether the pupil thinks chiefly in terms of words heard or of words spoken, and if motor whether speech-motor, hand-motor, eye-motor, or motor in the sense of a more comprehensive kinæsthetic ideation.

The principal tests for determining ideational types of school children performed up to date, dealing either directly with the problem, or indirectly under a more general head, as far as I am acquainted with them are by Hawkins, Kirkpatrick, Pentschew, Pedersen, Pfeiffer, Netschajeff, Lobsien, W. A. Lay, Meumann and his pupils. Some light is thrown upon the problem by Stern and those working with him. I may also mention an experiment conducted by myself in connection with I. F. Meyer and published some years ago in the *Pedagogical Seminary;* also another experiment under my direction conducted in the Psychological Laboratory at Illinois and shortly to appear among other studies in the *Monograph* series of the *Psychological Review*. While these various experiments do not agree in all particulars, there are many points in common and perhaps a fair agreement in fundamentals.

Netschajeff investigated a considerable number of children of various ages in the St. Petersburg schools. He used eight different memory series. He first presented concrete visual objects, then inarticulate sounds, then twelve two-place numbers, then words with visual, acoustic, motor, tactile, emotional and higher ideational content. Lobsien followed in the schools of Kiel Netschajeff's experiment with slight modification, and Pöhlmann tested the value of this method with the Lobsien series and found the method on the whole inadequate. The specific results of these tests are not sufficiently established to deserve extended comment. It seems fairly well established, however, that on the whole memory for concrete visual material is best, especially for the younger pupils, and that emotional and abstract imagery is a matter of adolescent development. The experiments conducted by Mr. Meyer and myself were in method somewhat like those of Netschajeff and Lobsien, inasmuch as an attempt was made to determine the type of imagery of school children by studying their vocabularies as revealed

in their school compositions. It was concluded from this study that emotional imagery was a matter of adolescent development, that visual and motor imagery were the predominating types of younger children and that there was a marked falling off in concrete imagery at about the onset of puberty—a conclusion that has been reached by other investigators. The conclusion that motor imagery is the predominating type, or is on the same plane as visual imagery in the thinking of young children is, I now believe, unwarranted, since it was concluded that because the pupils employed a large number of words with a motor content they were therefore motor in their type of ideation. The true explanation is that children are interested in movement and tend to write in a narrative style. The fact that a child employs motor terms, in my judgment, merely indicates the direction of his interest, but in no way necessarily shows the type of his ideation.

It was similarly concluded by Lay in his experiment with children concerning their acquisition of writing, that motor imagery was very important in their mental processes. Lay employed the method of helps, and noticed that less errors in learning were made when the presentation of a series of words was accompanied by speech and hand movements on the part of the child. Itschner has pointed out that this decrease in errors may be accounted for in terms of better attention as well as in terms of added motor imagery. An experiment recently concluded at the University of Illinois indicates clearly that writing, instead of being an aid to learning, is for children up to ten years of age a distraction.

Pentschew concluded from his experiments that with children the auditory-motor element is the basis for memory, and that visual ideation plays a secondary rôle, and Hawkins, who tested children with words in both visual and auditory presentation, successively and at the same rate, thinks that the type of the child conforms more to the auditory presentation, but that the adult is visual.

Kirkpatrick concludes from his tests that younger pupils are superior in their memory for spoken words. On the other hand, Pfeiffer, who carried on in Würzburg a test to determine the ideational types of girls through three successive years, found that his subjects were clearly superior in visual imagery, with motor second and acoustic imagery third.

Pedersen also reached a similar result in testing visual and acoustic memory. Twenty-seven boys between the ages of ten and eleven were tested with words taken from an English dictionary. Two series were used. The first consisted of words in which spelling and pronunciation were quite different, such as borough, fifthly, a-nights. These were presented vis-

ually and were supposed to appeal particularly to the visual type of ideation. The second series was composed likewise of English words, but in this case the spelling and pronunciation did agree. These words were presented orally and were devised to detect those with predominating auditory imagery. Pedersen found by this test that sixteen of his subjects were visual while eleven were auditory.

Pöhlmann experimenting with children of both sexes in the Volkschule at Osnabrück, used as material nonsense syllables, numbers, concrete objects, consonants and names of concrete objects with both oral and visual presentation. He concludes that the reproduction value of concrete objects is much greater than of words. Acoustic presentation is better for meaningful material, visual for nonsense material.

Meumann concludes from his own experiments and from the investigations of others that the ideational type of children, up to the onset of puberty, is objective-visual. They think in terms of persons, objects, concrete situations often spatially and temporally localized, while the adult on the other hand thinks in general verbal ideas. Conclusions similar to these may be deduced from the tests of Stern and others in the *Beiträge zur Psychologie der Aussage.*

In this connection I wish to state somewhat in detail the results of a recent test concerning ideational types of school children conducted at the University of Illinois. The test was made in the grades and high schools of Champaign, Illinois, and also with about 250 students in the classes in psychology at the university. The youngest pupils tested were scholars in the fourth grade. In all about seven hundred subjects were tested. The tests given consisted of nonsense characters, nonsense syllables and a story devised to present words and phrases suggesting an equal number of visual, auditory and motor elements. The test with the nonsense characters was so constructed that spatial localization played an important factor in the recall. The nonsense syllables were presented both orally and visually; also the memory was reinforced or hindered by inhibiting or facilitating speech-motor and hand-motor imagery.

The tests seemed to show beyond a doubt that the majority of subjects were predominatingly visual in their ideation; that, however, the visual imagery seemed to be more marked in the younger pupils and in the university than for the pupils in the higher grades of the public schools. This fact was brought out particularly by the nature of the curve recording the results for the test with the nonsense characters. This curve started in at 75 per cent. of correctness in the fourth grade and fell off somewhat in later grades, particularly just before the

onset of puberty, rising again to 75 per cent. in the university. The curves for the tests with the nonsense syllables and with the story started much lower, but showed a general progression through the grades, the high school and the university.

To properly interpret this seemingly peculiar result it will be necessary to pause a moment to consider the two factors that constitute successful recall. These are the stamping-in (Einprägung) and the association, and are factors that may vary independently. The existence of these two elements is clearly shown by Dr. Burnham in his well-known article on Retroactive Amnesia and they have been pointed out in much of the recent literature on memory. The Einprägung seems more important for young children, the feeble-minded, and in states of fatigue and mental depression. On the other hand for the normal adult the association plays the more important rôle.

The curve obtained by the test with the nonsense characters in the investigation under discussion is clearly a double curve in which the two factors, the Einprägung and the association are represented. In the lower grades the material was doubtless held in mind to a very great extent by sheer visual Einprägung, the picture being stamped on the mind's eye. This concrete visual Einprägung, however, falls off more rapidly than the association factor increases, so that there is an actual decrease in the ability to recall this concrete visual material. The rise of the curve in the high school and the university indicates the growth of the associative element in the recall which finally in the university makes up for the loss of the Einprägung of the concrete visual material.

The fact that the curves representing the other tests continue to rise is to be explained by the fact that this material cannot be held so readily through Einprägung, but depends more largely on association for its retention. It therefore rises as the associative element in the recall increases with the age of the subject. To sum up: —

The conclusions that can be drawn with a fair degree of certainty from the various investigations up to date concerning the ideational types of school children are:

(1) Children of the lower grades think predominatingly in concrete imagery, which in most instances is visual. Their visual imagination at this stage is rich and approaches more closely the character of sensation than it does in later life, except under abnormal conditions.

(2) This concrete imagery gradually falls off and is replaced by verbal imagery—the "inner-speech" in which adults do most of their thinking. This inner-speech is an auditory-motor affair principally and the imagery is weak and colorless.

It facilitates that aspect of recall which depends on association, but is not so well suited to a vivid Einprägung.

(3) It thus happens that there is an extensive loss of concrete imagery and a substitution of verbal imagery, which is suited to abstract thinking rather than to the living over of the vivid experiences of an actual situation. This, I think, may be fairly concluded, though, as I said at the beginning, we have few absolutely certain methods for testing ideational types, particularly of children in groups.

I now come to the real object of the present discussion, which is the justification for presenting this rather narrow and technical topic before this Conference, namely, what is the pedagogical value of a knowledge of ideational types among children, and how can such knowledge be serviceable in promoting the welfare of the child? As I said at the beginning of the discussion, the question of ideational types is one aspect of the broader problem of economical learning. No one who knows school conditions, even superficially, can doubt but that there are tremendous wastes in methods of learning encouraged, or at least allowed, by teachers and practiced by pupils. The loss in time, the resulting physical and mental fatigue is probably far greater than most of us realize. Any knowledge which, when applied to the school conditions will help to minimize this waste, is important. Through the experiments begun by Ebbinghaus nearly thirty years ago and carried on to-day by Meumann and many other investigators in Germany and in America as well, we know what some of these losses are, and have the problem before us of how to stop these losses.

A knowledge of the exact ideational development of the child from the time when he enters the school until he has completed his pre-adolescent and early adolescent years would be of the greatest advantage in throwing further light on his mental processes and indicating what may be done to facilitate his learning and save unnecessary fatigue incident on the long hours of confinement in school buildings, which, at their best, are still, for the normal child, places of confinement. Turning more specifically to some of the questions which arise in connection with our problem concerning ideational types, I am sure that we shall agree that a systematic determination and record of these types should be made for each child from year to year, throughout his school course, as far as present methods permit the determination of these types and as methods shall be devised in the future for the further facilitation of such determination. Doubtless the great majority of children will fall into a group in which a particular type of ideation for a given material and for a given period of development is fore-

most, but where no one type is employed to the exclusion of all others.

There will, however, be some children, not classed ordinarily as defectives, who deviate decidedly from this majority. Methods of instruction which may work well for the large group of average children will be less suited to the learning processes of these less typical children; indeed such methods may be entirely inadequate. Such children must be treated by special methods if results are to be accomplished. The child who, for example, lacks visual word imagery as well as the child who has defective vision, needs individual attention. It is wrong to treat the child, defective in some particular type of ideation, from the standpoint of the average child; just as wrong as it would be to treat the child with defective sensation in the same manner that we treat the child with normal sensory acuity. It is just as important, then, to determine ideational insufficiency as it is to determine sensory deficiency.

I have particularly in mind in this connection a boy of twelve years, who several years ago was attacked with a pronounced case of hysterical amblyopia, resulting for a time in practical total blindness in one eye, and 1/20th vision in the other. The recovery from the attack was, however, rapid and apparently complete. While practically normal in all other respects this boy, however, has shown evidences since this period of what seems to be almost a verbal visual aphasia. He is, therefore, far behind his grade in reading, though in other respects his intelligence seems good. On examination it can be easily discovered that he is of a strong auditory-motor type of thinking. He is rapid and facile in his motor control with the exception of his speech, writes well considering his slight training, is good in number work and in spelling. Difficult words that he seems incapable of recognizing when presented visually, he can instantly pronounce when they are spelled, particularly by some one other than himself.

Recently he has shown considerable improvement, due to special training in the recognition of verbal visual symbols and to a growing interest in them and an increased confidence that he can interpret them. I am convinced that such a case as this is not as uncommon as may at first be supposed. There are a considerable number of children in nearly every grade who find difficulty in learning to read, indeed there are some with apparent average intelligence in some directions who cannot accomplish this at all. These latter are so abnormal that of course they are easily singled out, and where facilities exist, are generally placed in a special school for the subnormal and weak-minded. There are, however, a considerable number who are merely more or less backward, and it is for these chil-

dren in particular that a determinatinn of the ideational type is important for the teacher.

What applies to visual ideation applies equally well to other sense departments, and I feel quite certain that there exists the possibility of tracing backwardness in other things beside reading to defective ideation.

A knowledge of ideational types is important not merely for getting at the defects of the backward child, it is important for training the normal child as well. If it is established, for example, that the great mass of children for a certain kind of school material are concrete visual, then the question arises as to what is the most economical method of teaching such children. Obviously if the matter of formal education is not considered, the most direct and time-saving procedure will be to teach the child in terms of his type, to deal in concrete and sensory material. On the other hand the child is a developing organism, and if high mental attainment is to be achieved he must learn to think in a more abstract and verbal way. Therefore to keep him too long on work that requires relatively little employment of other than concrete visual imagery would be a mistake, a mistake which I am not so sure but some schools are guilty of at the present time. Meumann believes that it is wise at first to teach the child in terms of his particular ideational type, and later to train him in the use of other types. It is, however, a mistake when the child is clearly of one type of ideation, to attempt to facilitate his immediate acquisition by bringing in aids from other sense departments. For example, it is distinctly disadvantageous for the purpose of rapid learning to require a child in the third or fourth grade to memorize a given material by visualizing it and writing it at the same time. The hand-motor imagery is not sufficiently developed at this period of school life, and it is a decided distraction for most children to attempt to learn in this way. I believe that the most practical and time saving method of instruction is to teach the child in terms of his particular type or types, and at another time to discipline him in the acquisition of those types of ideation in which he is defective.

It is undoubtedly a calamity that children gradually, largely through their school education, lose their power of concrete visual imagery. While it is necessary that the verbal type should be developed, this does not mean that the ability for concrete visualization should be completely lost as it often seems to be. Galton in his study of types of imagery found men of science singularly lacking in imagerial power. It is doubtless true that our method of education devitalizes to a great extent the world of concrete experience for the child. When a teacher of English in the Worcester high schools some

ten years ago, I was impressed with the fact that the average boy or girl of high school age seemed singularly incapable of getting the real images from a page of descriptive prose or poetry. The words of the author had no living significance, they were practically all verbal and barren. To enjoy any form of art we must be capable of reproducing in concrete imagery the symbols in which the art expresses itself. If our methods of instruction are so formed as to tend to devitalize the imagerial experiences of the school child they are open to very serious criticism.

Our methods of instruction should not only see to it that concrete imagery is not driven out of the child's mind, but they should also have a care that verbal visual imagery should not be completely transplanted by the auditory-motor type of inner speech. If it is true, as Meumann asserts, that the rapid learner is the rapid forgetter, and if it is also true that the rapid learner is generally acoustic-motor while the slower thinker is more largely visual-verbal in his type, the conclusion is obvious. If we aim at rapidity of acquisition solely, then cultivate the auditor-motor type to the exclusion of other forms of ideation. If we aim at permanent acquisition the verbal visual type should be developed. Since school instruction aims at neither exclusively, it clearly follows that we should cultivate both types, but neither to the absolute exclusion of the other. Indeed, my conclusion would be that it is the business of education as far as possible to cultivate all types of imagination if we wish to develop the all around individual. The process of specialization does not begin in the university, the college or the high school. It begins when a system of education by its methods predetermines the child to think exclusively or largely in any one type of ideation. This it begins to do early in the child's school life. Is such a procedure wise; is it economical; is it hygienic; is it moral?

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READING CLUBS FOR OLDER BOYS AND GIRLS[1]

By Miss C. M. Hewins, Public Library, Hartford

The boys and girls who are growing up in libraries where story-telling is a part of the weekly routine, at thirteen or fourteen are beginning to feel a little too old to listen to fairy tales or King Arthur legends, and look towards the unexplored delights of the grown-up shelves. Many librarians are taking advantage of this desire for new and interesting books to form boys' and girls' clubs with definite objects. One whom I know, after a training with large numbers of children in a city branch library, became librarian in a manufacturing town where there were no boys' clubs, and soon formed a Polar Club, for reading about Arctic exploration. She was fortunate in having an audience hall in the library building, and before the end of the winter the boys had engaged Fiala, the Antarctic explorer, to give a lecture, sold tickets and more than cleared expenses. This, be it remembered, is in a town with no regular theatre or amusement hall, and the librarian is young, enthusiastic, and of attractive personality. The branch libraries in Cleveland have been successful in their clubs, and in back numbers of the Library Journal and Public Libraries, you will find records of organizations of young folk who meet out of library hours, under parliamentary rules, for more or less definite courses of reading. For the reason that the experiments are in print and easily accessible, I shall merely give you a record of my own book-talks at entirely informal meetings.

Long ago, before there were library schools, Harlan H. Ballard, now librarian of the Pittsfield Athenæum, used St. Nicholas as the organ of the Agassiz Association, which had been in existence for several years with about a hundred members in Berkshire County. The Association grew and soon had chapters all over the world. In the number of St. Nicholas for December, 1881, I find the record of ours, and the name of the first secretary, then a boy of ten or twelve years, now a prominent citizen, a member of the Board of Park Commissioners and School Visitors. We used to go out of doors looking for birds and insects through the spring and fall, and meet in the library in winter for reading from authors like

[1] An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

John Burroughs, Dr. C. C. Abbott and Frank Buckland, or the lives of Thomas Edward, Robert Dick, Agassiz and other naturalists, or sometimes a story from a grown-up magazine like one of Annie Trumbull Slosson's or an account of real pets like Frank Bolles's owls. The children in "A. A. Chapter B" all had good homes, good vocabularies and reading fathers and mothers, and listened with interest to books that are far in advance of the children of their age who began to come to the library after it was made public. The chapter lived long enough to admit the children of at least one of its original members, and only died because Saturday morning, the only morning in the week when children are free, had important business engagements for the librarian, who feels that "Nature-study," too, plays an important part in schools now-a-days, and that in the language of "My Double"; "there has been so much said, and on the whole so well said," that there is less need than there used to be of such a club, although it is a great deprivation not to have the long country walks and the Saturday readings and talks with the children. A librarian or a settlement worker who sees only children from non-English speaking homes is in danger of forgetting that there are others who can use books in unsimplified form.

This is the only club connected with the library which had a formal organization, but in giving a talk one day several years ago to the upper grades of a school, I asked how many boys and girls were going to stay in town through the summer, and invited all who were to come to the library one afternoon a week for a book-talk. The next year I sent the same invitation to several schools, and gave in both summers running comments and readings of attractive passages from books on Indians, animals, the North Pole, adventures, machines, books of poetry, stories about pictures and some out-of-the-way story books, with a tableful of others that there was not time to read from. The titles of the books are in Public Libraries, June, 1900, and are largely from the grown-up shelves. This was five or six years before our boys' and girls' room was opened and the children had free access to all their own books.

The third year the programme was a little varied. Some of the subjects were "Books that tell how to do things," "A great author and his friends (Sir Walter Scott)," "Another great author and his short stories (Washington Irving)." I have always made a great deal of the friendship between these two authors, and as most of our children are Jewish, I have often told the story and shown the portrait of Rebecca Gratz, the Philadelphia Jewess, who was too true to her religion to marry a Christian, and whose story as told by Irving, whose

promised wife had been her friend, gave Scott his noble ideal of the character of Rebecca.

One year we had an afternoon about knights and tournaments, and by an easy transition, the subject for the next week was "What happened to a man who read too much about knights," giving an opportunity for an introduction to Don Quixote. After that two-dream-stories opened the way to a fine illustrated edition of the Pilgrim's Progress, and stories from Dante.

The next year, I tried stories of English history, in nine or ten different periods, reading from one book every week and suggesting others. After the opening of the boys' and girls' room, the book-talks for one or two summers for seventh and eighth grade pupils, were upon some of the pictures in the room: Windsor Castle, Kenilworth, Heidelberg Castle, the Alhambra, the Canterbury Pilgrims and some Shakespeare stories. Afterwards, "What you can get out of a Henty book" gave a chance for interesting picture bulletins, and the use of other books referring to the times of "Beric the Briton," "The Boy Knight," "Knights of the White Cross," "Bonnie Prince Charlie," "In the Reign of Terror." Last year and this I have been reading Scott and Dickens aloud.

We have some of the Detroit colored photographs of places of historic interest, Windsor Castle for which I used Lydia Maria Child's story of "The Royal Rosebud," although most of the little princess's early life was passed in sanctuary at Westminster. On the afternoon when Kenilworth was the subject, I read all of Scott's novel that we had time for. Once on the Alhambra day, we have had Irving's story of the Arabian astrologer, and again a description of the palace and the Generalife who had just come from Spain. There was little in print about Heidelberg that I could use, and I had to write out the whole story of the Winter King and his Queen, James First's daughter Elizabeth, ancestress of the present king of England and mother of a large family.

Two years ago, in the interim between one children's librarian who was married in June and her successor who could not come till September, I spent most of the summer in the boys' and girls' room, and learned two things. Some of the children thought that they had read all the books on the shelves, and were asking for grown-up cards. They were kept in the room by transferring some duplicate copies of novels best worth reading from the main library and putting red stars on the back and the book-card. Then I was able to talk with girls who had read all of Laura Richards's Hildegarde books, but had never thought of looking up one of the poems or stories that she loved, or one of the pictures in her room. I have

sometimes read the description of the room to a class in a schoolroom, and put on the blackboard all the names of places, persons, books and poems in it. One year I invited girls to form a Hildegarde Club for reading these very things, and in writing to Mrs. Richards on another subject, mentioned it. She wrote me an answer that I have had framed for the girls to see. The Club lived for a few months and used to meet on Saturday afternoons for reading "The Days of Bruce," but at the Christmas holidays the girls went into the department stores for a few weeks and forgot to come back. However, I am very happy to tell the story of another Hildegarde Club that is still flourishing. The teacher of a ninth grade class loves books, and was quick to seize the hint of such a club, which she organized from the girls in her room, and asked permission to bring to my office for its weekly meetings. She is keeping them up to their work because she sees them every day, and they are interested and learning how much they can find in a book besides the story. Besides this, they are observant and appreciative of whatever they see on the walls of my room. The girls to whom I gave a general invitation by means of a newspaper article were not from the same school and did not all know each other. It is better in organizing a club to have some common ground of interest and begin with a small number. It cannot always be done in a city in or through the library, except indirectly, by means of a Settlement or other club. One that I know does very good work in its meetings with the Settlement headworker, and has a small collection of books and pictures from the main library for six months, and a more elementary bookshelf for a younger club with whom one of the members is reading the same subject.

A librarian or library assistant can do some of her best work in a Settlement club either in connection with the Settlement library or independently. Readings from Dickens can be illustrated by scenes acted in pantomime, with very simple properties. Indeed, we had not even a curtain when Miss La Creevy painted Kate's miniature, when the Savage and the Maiden danced their inimitable dance, when Mrs. Kenwigs and Morleena held a reception for Mrs. Crummles, the Phenomenon and the ladies of their company, when after they had recited from their star parts, Morleena had the soles of her shoes chalked and danced her fancy dance, and Henrietta Petowker took down her back hair and repeated "The Blood-drinker's Burial." The old man looked over the wall, too, and threw garden vegetables and languishing glances at Mrs. Nickleby who encouraged his advances. There was no time for the girls to learn the parts in the busy, crowded, late-open holiday evenings of department stores, but they all entered

into the pantomime and interpreted the reading with spirit, as they did at another time in some of the Shakespeare scenes, Rosalind, Celia and Touchstone, Hamlet and Ophelia, Bottom and Titania, with attendant fairies, and Shylock and Portia. The Dickens scenes were repeated for a younger club, just trying its dramatic wings in charades, and when May-time came these younger girls of twelve to fifteen gave a very successful representation of an old English May-day with Robin Hood and his merry band, a Jester, a Dragon, a Hobby-horse and Jack in the Green, Maid Marian and the Lord and Lady of the May on the library green.

The opportunity of a library in a small town, where there is more leisure than in a city, is in the formation of young people's clubs. One day, a year or two ago, I visited three libraries on the Sound shore in Connecticut. In one, the librarian had made her basement useful out of library hours by organizing a class in chair-caning for boys who were beginning to hang around the streets, and were in danger of being compelled to learn the art in the Reform School if they did not acquire it as a means of keeping their hands from mischief at home. In the next town, the librarian mounted and identified all the moths and butterflies that the children brought to her and gave them insect books. In the library beyond, the children were formed into a branch of the Flower Mission in the nearest city. The club need not always be for reading, but must depend on the resources or interests of the boys and girls. There is no need of debating clubs in our library, for the city is full of them, but they may be the very best thing that the librarian in the next town can form.

A reading club must not necessarily be a club for the study or enjoyment of stories, history or poetry. Under the guidance of the kind of librarian who aims far above her audience, it may turn into something like Mr. Wopsle's quarterly examinations of his great aunt's school, "when what he did," says Pip, "was to turn up his cuffs, stick up his hair and give us Mark Antony's oration over the body of Cæsar. This was always followed by Collins's Ode on the Passions, wherein I particularly venerated Mr. Wopsle as Revenge, throwing his blood-stained sword in thunder down, and taking the war-renouncing trumpet with a withering look." There may be a club for making things out of the Beard books, for the study of sleight-of-hand, for exchanging postcards with children in other countries and reading about the places on them. It may make historical pilgrimages to places of interest in the town or may collect stones and clay nodules, and read about them. The important thing is to find children of nearly the same age and neighborhood with interests in common, and let them de-

cide whom they shall ask to join the club after it is formed. Better yet if they ask for the club in the first place. One not very long-lived Settlement club which I knew was of boys who wished to read and act Shakespeare, but a very few evenings convinced them that as they could not even read the lines without stumbling, they were not on the road to the actors' Temple of Fame. They were boys who had left school at fourteen in the lower grades, except one, who had taken his High School examinations and is now at the head of a department in a large department store and a prominent member of a political study club. The others, who had expected to play prominent Shakespearean parts with little or no work, were easily discouraged, dropped off and were seen no more. The reading of very simple plays at first is a good stepping-stone to a study of Shakespeare later, but the plays must be interesting enough to hold the attention of boys who do not read fluently.

YOUTH AND THE MARATHON[1]

By William J. Cromie
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Long distance running has been in vogue almost since the beginning of history, and, throughout the centuries to the present time, has been more or less overdone and abused owing to the fact that some indulged who were not physically fit, or who had neither sufficient nor proper preliminary physical training.

It is said that, centuries before the Christian era, Ladas, a Spartan, after running in the Greek Stadium a distance of only a little more than three miles, won his race and dropped dead after crossing the goal. This man must have been in poor physical condition, or else was not properly trained. Again, in the Stadium, the men did not run on firm earth, but in soft sand, and this made running fast doubly difficult.

Many long runs besides the Marathon have been accomplished by men in the past. Before the Battle of Marathon, when the Persian attack was imminent, the Athenians sent Phidippides to Sparta to summon help. The distance was one hundred and fifty miles; this he covered in forty-eight hours. On February twenty-second, 1882, J. Saunders, of New York, ran one hundred miles in seventeen hours thirty-six minutes and fourteen seconds. J. E. Dixon, of Balham, England, ran fifty miles in six hours eighteen minutes twenty-six and one-fifth seconds, on April eleventh, 1885. Both of these men were amateur runners. Charles Rowell, a professional runner, on February twenty-seventh, 1882, ran one hundred miles in thirteen hours twenty-six minutes and thirty seconds, and, on October twenty-fourth, 1882, ran two hundred miles in thirty-five hours nine minutes twenty-eight seconds. According to these figures we find that the one hundred and fifty mile run of Phidippides in forty-eight hours was not such a great athletic event.

The Marathon

The present Marathon race, which consists of twenty-six miles three hundred and eighty-five yards, is the most strenuous and arduous of all our modern sports. It is very difficult

[1] An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

to select the man or youth who can withstand the strain of repeated endurance runs of twenty-five miles without injury. Many claim that the Marathon does no harm; that if one can run five miles he can run ten; and, if he can run ten, he can run twenty and even twenty-five miles. Some of these supporters tell us to "take a look" at the ancient Greeks and observe their superb development, their physical perfection; their great strength, skill and endurance. We look *backward* and read that Xenophon, the Athenian historian, who lived 435 to 354 B. C., complained that the Greeks specialized too much, and that by so doing developed a race of ill-proportioned athletes. He said that the runners' limbs were wonderful, but that their shoulders were poor. This historian also asserted that the Greek figures that we admire so much in our art galleries were not types, but were the composite of several figures.

Plato, the Greek philosopher, described some of the athletes of his time as "sleeping away their lives"; while Galen, the Greek physician, in speaking of the Greek and Roman athletes said that some of them were "heavy and stupid." The Greeks were not superior to the athletes of to-day; in fact, the Americans are the greatest athletes in the world, but even they are in danger of overtraining. Some of the feats of the Greeks are very vague and indefinite, as some of the short distance races were measured by "the distance a youth could throw a stone;" others were of a distance that "an ox could draw a plough during the hours of daylight." Such measurements leave us in doubt as to what the distances were.

Revival of the Marathon

In 1896 the first of the *modern* Olympiads was held in Athens, Greece. The principal event was a foot race from the battlefield of Marathon to the goal of the Stadium, a distance of 26.1 miles. The popularity of this race was due to the fact that in 490 B.C. on the plain of Marathon, the Athenians and Platoans under Miltiades defeated the Persians. A messenger of Miltiades ran from the battlefield of Marathon to Athens, and retained sufficient breath to cry out the defeat of the Persians; halted in his tracks—and dropped dead. The first three men to finish in the modern Marathon race, over the same course that it is supposed the messenger of Miltiades ran, were Greeks. Louis, who finished first, and his two Greek companions, were greeted with a cheer that has re-echoed around the world, and made Marathon running our most popular sport. At that time Louis was acclaimed a hero by all nations, for was it not Greece that inaugurated that classic event when she was the ruling nation of the world?

It seemed then a settled fact that in Greece the world's greatest long distance runners were bred and developed. But Greece did not long hold the supremacy, for many stars now shine brilliantly in the universe of long distance running. John J. Hayes, the American, holds the championship Marathon trophy by virtue of his winning it at the Olympic games held in London July, 1908. It is largely due to this fact that the run has become so popular in America. John Hayes has been practicing long distance running for years, and is a veteran at this kind of sport.

Then there is Alfred Schrubb, the English physical marvel. He has also had many years of training. The English have been exponents of distance running for over fifty years. The successful Marathon runner is he who has a strong physique and who has had much preparation. Tom Longboat, the fleet Indian, has been in training for years. Dorando Pietri, the Italian, has been running since he was a messenger boy in Capri, Italy, and had he not been interfered with by over-zealous officials, might have won the *great* Marathon.

These are the pioneers — the men who have blazed the forests of long distance running. Many lesser lights are following closely in their pathway — but have they the physique, the necessary long, arduous training that is essential to an endurance test of this nature?

Effects of Over-running

Doctor R. Tait Mackenzie, Professor of Physical Education in the University of Pennsylvania, and a noted sculptor, has made four masks that cover the conditions experienced by runners; they are called effort, breathlessness, fatigue, and exhaustion.

Effort

"Effort," said Fernard Lagrange, M. D., "is a physiological action which consists in the association of great numbers of muscles and bones, that they may assist in the same movement, and which, moreover, brings into active association with the muscular work two great functions of the economy—respiration and circulation." The effort that is required in long-distance running is a phenomenon that is intimately connected with very great expenditure of force, and if indulged in long enough will finally result in the suspension of the respiratory movement. Even localized effort will bring about this result. For instance, a man can crack a nut with a thin shell between the fingers, and the muscular action will be confined to the fingers and forearm; but, if the shell is thick and the man has to use all his force, the muscular contraction extends to the arm, the

shoulder, and finally to the neck, chest and abdomen. Respiration stops, the face becomes flushed and congested, and the veins of the forehead and neck fill and become prominent.

This man's condition at the moment is similar to that of the man who is running, and whose facial expression denotes violent effort. The runner does not hold his breath in the same manner as the "nut cracker," but the physiological action is the same, viz., that a disturbance is occurring in the system which momentarily hinders respiration and circulation. The blood pressure in the veins and arteries is increased, and the breathing is quickened. Violent effort, as seen in Doctor Mackenzie's clay model, produces remarkable changes in the facial expression. The nostrils are dilated, the lips are retracted, the eyes squint, and the general expression of the face is repulsive.

Breathlessness

If violent effort be persisted in for some time, the runner becomes breathless. The rhythm of respiration becomes irregular. The inspiration becomes much more prolonged than expiration; the breathing is almost a gasp. At this stage the runner somewhat resembles an intoxicated person. "In breathlessness," says Doctor Mackenzie, "the upper lids droop and half cover the eye, giving a look of great lassitude to the suffering expressed by this region of the face. The nostrils are widely dilated, the mouth gapes, and the lips are retracted in the mad struggle for air. The general pose of the head is backward, and the chin is thrust forward."

Fatigue

In fatigue, the entire system is affected. There is a pounding in the temples; sparks and flashes of light appear before the eyes; ringing noises are heard, and the chest feels as if it were oppressed by a weight, and the air inhaled has a "burning" sensation. When one becomes fatigued under the influence of enforced running, the face takes on a leaden hue. In no case should one be permitted to continue running when this condition presents itself, as it means the beginning of asphyxia.

Exhaustion

Often when a runner is almost exhausted, when the head feels as if bound by an iron band; when he is almost unconscious of passing events, he will still force the tired legs forward until they refuse to act, and he falls to the ground exhausted or in a faint. When one is in this condition, his respiration is short, jerky and occasionally interrupted. The

heart beat is feeble and intermittent, while the pulse is irregular and almost imperceptible. When running is continued to these extreme limits, grave dangers may be encountered. Some horses will run until they drop dead from exhaustion if the whip is applied. The same holds true of men and *boys* if the whip of violent effort is applied to the extreme. The case of the first Marathon runner furnishes us with a striking example of the terrible penalty of excess in running.

School Boys

All physical trainers should sound a note of warning against boys entering long endurance runs. Immature boys and young men who work or study all day should be discouraged against training for the Marathon at night or on Sundays, as it necessarily takes a great deal of time which in their case should be spent in sleep or rest. A boy cannot afford to run three or four hours after supper, as the strain is too great. It is rather serious for a trainer or director to have young men return to him in a few years with nervous breakdown or chronic heart and lung affections due to strain or overtraining, and blame the coach for their loss of health.

Newspapers in many cities are conducting Marathon runs, and offering valuable prizes for the successful contestants. This, together with publicity, tempts many who are not physically fit to enter these races. On February 19th a Pittsburg newspaper conducted a run of ten miles in which there were 4,900 entries. It is claimed that none of the contestants were over sixteen years of age. Can it be possible that all of these *lads* were in the *proper* physical condition to run even ten miles?

Some of these newspapers have the contestants run the full Marathon course. Recently, in New Castle, Pa., one of the prominent newspapers conducted such a run, and a youth fourteen years of age, who finished ninth in the race, was acclaimed a hero. There were over eighty entered in this race, some of whom were men. Surely, a boy cannot compete with strong men and trained college students. In some cases, seasoned Marathon runners act as coaches in connection with these runs. These men are apt to overrate the powers of beginners and "push them too hard."

Michael Murphy, the noted athleic trainer who coached the American team for the Olympic Games held in London July, 1908, in speaking of distance running recently said: "The colleges have found that seven and three-quarter miles is about the best distance for their cross country championships, and the collegians are good runners. On a flat track they could safely go further—perhaps the Marathon distance without any

bad results. Distance running, *when the competitor is properly trained*, is one of the finest of sports, but the youngsters *should be kept away from the game.*"

Recently, a group of eminent English physicians stamped their disapproval on Marathon races among boys. Such famous physicians as Sir Lauder Brunton, Sir Thomas Barlow and Sir Alfred Tripp signed the following strongly worded statement, which was sent to every British school: "We have no hesitation in saying that we consider that school and cross country races exceeding one mile in distance are wholly unsuitable for boys under the age of nineteen, as the continued strain involved is apt to cause permanent injury to the heart and other organs."

Usually, the Americans are extremists in sports as in everything else. What we need more is a system of improving all muscles and making them co-ordinate to the mind. Boys should practice for skill and agility; also to gain calm, steady nerve. They should take part in events which are moderate, and which give physical poise and efficiency. A Marathon *relay* race with twenty-six boys, or even fifty-two boys entered, would be far superior to one boy straining to run the full Marathon course. Running, or, in fact, any form of gymnastics or athletics which interfere seriously with business or study, should be discouraged.

BOYS' CLUBS[1]

By William Byron Forbush

Boys' clubs express more directly, generally, and permanently than any other agency, even than the home or the school, the two central interests of boyhood: play and friendship. They are therefore of the greatest importance both as objects of study and as means of education. Their relation to play is obvious, but is emphasized by the remark that seventy-eight per cent. of all spontaneously formed boys' organizations are for the purpose of outdoor physical activities and that the percentage of those in which the play element is not central is negligible. Their relation to boys' friendships is equally obvious, but is also emphasized by the observation that in our day, when residence in cities is becoming the rule, boys are over-socialized before their time and are consequently more thoroughly influenced by the companionships they form than they ever were before. The universality of boys' clubs as the expression of play and friendship is indicated by a study made at Clark University, which seems to prove that eighty per cent. of all boys at one time or another belong to some childish society, a percentage practically equal to all those who ever had a chance thus to organize.

So much for boys' clubs organized by boys. Of clubs organized by adults for boys similar statements may be made; for they too, if they be successful, appeal to the same two instincts, of friendship and of play.

Instructive as is the study of the boys' spontaneous club—"the gang," as it is often called—we must confine our remarks this afternoon to the club formed by adults for the benefit of boys.

Boys' clubs have been considered to be of two types: those which gather boys *en masse* and those which gather them in small groups. Of the former are the big clubs for newsboys and street urchins. Of the latter, are smaller clubs in social settlements and churches. Naturally—because philanthropy was zealous before it was careful—the mass clubs came first, beginning about forty years ago. But the distinction of type is vanishing, for to-day a club is a mass club usually because

[1] An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

it has not succeeded in getting enough workers to divide the mass into groups, and a group club usually endeavors by a federation of groups to attain some of the *ésprit de corps* of the mass.

A more instructive approach to the subject will be to consider what some of the activities of these boys' clubs are. The most successful activities, as the writer has already stated, are those based on play and friendship. This statement seems to have no exception.

Boys' clubs are often said to be a kind of school. Many of their activities are distinctly and graciously educational, and formal education is learning much from the informal methods of education used in the boys' club; but the boys' club that began to become a school before it had encouraged play among its boys or friendship with its boys would soon lose its boys altogether.

And so of religious boys' clubs. It is not to be denied that boys' clubs may rightly be used for religious ends, but many a church organization for the young has gone fallow or become a girls' society because it was too stiff to play or too formal to find room for fellowship.

On the other hand, most adult workers with boys have found it both necessary and wise in the use of play and friendship to seek a level of expression for those instincts as high at least as the least common denominator of the gang. I know a reputable business man who has, for a number of years, found pleasure in giving freely to a group of boys his companionship in automobile riding, theatre-going and card-playing, and yet a number of boys are continually forsaking him for no other reason, I believe, than that they have outgrown him.

One of the most wholesome methods of utilizing play and friendship in boys' clubs is seen in the service of men who have engaged with boys in nature study, field work, woodcraft, scouting and camping out. The nature study work of Dr. Hodge, Dr. Bigelow and Mr. George E. Johnson, the farm and garden work of Mr. O. J. Kern, Mr. Rufus Stanley and the Cornell University people, the revival of the better part of Indian life by Mr. Thompson Seton, the scouting parties which General Baden-Powell has scattered through England, and the excellent camps, conducted both by Y. M. C. A. secretaries and by schoolmasters, are familiar instances which illustrate and, I think, do not strain too much the term, boys' clubs.

Some workers have, more or less consciously, endeavored to utilize other well known instincts of boyhood beside play and friendship. The Boys' Brigades recognize the love of combat and of rhythmic action. There are various self-governing

clubs, which appeal to the dawning sense of law and order and, especially among Jewish boys, the desire to conduct argumentative debates. A fraternity called the Knights of King Arthur, resting upon that whole range of chivalric instincts, which has caused psychologists to characterize adolescence as a medieval period, has actually revived and is reproducing in hundreds of instances knightly castles, tournaments and quests.

Clubs that meet in the winter time seem to tend to crystallize into more formality than those that can get outdoors, and so, in church, Y. M. C. A. and settlement, one may expect to find everywhere: athletic clubs, represented chiefly by basket ball; clubs of manual work, busy usually with raffia, woodwork, cobbling and printing; and clubs whose intellectual labors are dramatics and debating.

The extent of boys' club work in this country is hardly recognized by those who have not made it a special study. The writer has catalogued nearly 150 large clubs for street boys which may be supposed to be reaching 100,000 members annually. The Y. M. C. A. probably reaches twice as many. Two hundred social settlements must be reaching at least a hundred boys apiece. It is calculated that the churches are offering young people's societies or boys' clubs to at least one out of five of their Sunday School boys, and thus are reaching at least half a million. I have a list of as many as twenty-five nationally organized movements for the uplift of boys which have officers, literature and large memberships. Not all this work is well done and the total of it is not enough, but it is all worth doing.

Going a little deeper than methods, we may approach the principles that underlie boys' clubs by asking as to the results from boys' clubs in two interesting fields: education and character-making.

Aside from what the boys' club has taught the school as to the value of play work and hand work, the boys' club has in itself at least two important relations to the educational system of the country. One, which comes through the recognition of play, is the opportunity which appears in the club to allure the illiterate boy or the boy who has left school back to the school. Many a lad by the loosening up of his muscles or the awakening of his manual powers in the play work of the club has been won back to the manual or technical courses of the schools. So important a link between the boy and the school, has this been recognized to be, that boys' clubs have been formed, with this very purpose in mind, in the evening educational centres of Boston and in some libraries and playgrounds.

Another relation of the club to the school appears, in the exercise of personal friendship in the club, in the direction of boys towards their vocations. No important choice in America is attended by so little deliberation or so many accidents as the choice of a calling, unless it be the choice of a wife. While Professor Frank Parsons was the first formally to institute Vocational Bureaus, every wise boys' club leader and Y. M. C. A. secretary has, for years, recognized the task of vocational advice as the most important function of his daily work, and in the fulfilling of this function has made the republic deeply his debtor.

In studying the character-making work of boys' clubs we come to one of the most complex considerations as well as the most important one in boys' club work. It may be fairly said that few, if any, adults associate with a group of boys for any length of time without having as their distinct purpose either their uplift or their seduction. The mere joy of such association without some ulterior end usually palls upon the adult mind. Probably, also, nobody ever does boys quite as much harm or good as he intends to. The young character, like the young intellect, has a way of developing itself regardless of well meant interferences from the laying on of adult hands. Yet who would doubt that a central and often a deciding influence in a boy's life comes through the directed play and the carefully guarded friendships of a boy's club?

Among the character-forming influences of a club our best judgment ranks as easily first the influence of the adult leader upon the boys and the influence of the boys upon each other.

Theoretically, a man might hope to influence a boy more directly and potently individually than through the machinery of a club. A few men, of strong magnetism and sympathy, can do this. Most of us, however, find that we have lost the dialect, if not the language, of childhood and that we need the club both in order that we may learn to understand the boy and that he may learn to understand us. I recall my own experiences in camping out with various groups of boys as a proof of this. I was educated, as many boys are, to the intent that I might become a perfect lady, and when I became a man my desire to be of service to boys was pathetically thwarted by my inability to have real points of contact with them. The outdoor hardship and play have furnished that contact. I returned last Tuesday from camping out for ten days with twenty-two boys, who six weeks ago were listening to an address from me with mild respect, but as a perfect stranger. Since then we have swam together and played ball together and together built our camp fire, and I have cooked for them and bound up their wounds. To-day they have begun

to know me and to like me, and they have even given me a nickname, thus admitting me into their tribe. To-day I know them, some of them nearly as well as their own parents do. Some day may I not hope, when passion changes to control and docilities to destinies, to coin these fellowships into character?

So firmly convinced are advanced religious educators becoming of the essential importance of the enlightened influence of the adult companion upon boys in character-building that they are insisting that real teaching in Sunday school cannot be done without it. The matter of verbal ethical teaching has always been felt to have its perils: there is question whether it be not actually pernicious without real communion of spirit. To the stranger who would fain, even with noble motive, trespass upon his shrine and burglarize his soul, the child may be imagined to respond, in a paraphrase of an Old Testament sentence, "Take thy shoes from off *my* feet, for the place whereon thou standest is holy ground."

It may be queried whether the influence of boys upon each other is not more potent as well as more direct than that which any adult can possibly exert. This is probably so because of a fact of soul life which even psychology has so far neglected, the fact that the adolescent is not yet fully an individual but is still, to some extent, integrally a portion of the group. Just as certain low orders of animal life resident in a mass have some physical functions which they perform as a group and others which they perform as individuals, so by analogy, boys seem to act *en masse* as well as alone, even on the highest planes of their being. There may be different explanations of this. When I saw fifty boys studying their Bibles together outdoors one fine weekday morning at a Y. M. C. A. camp, I thought it was imitation. When I heard of the ludicrous response to an evangelist's appeal by which a group of boys, in answer to his request that if they wanted to be saved they meet in a certain corner of the room, all proceeded to pile themselves up there, it seemed like hypnosis; The fact that when boys come forward for church membership they generally do so in groups or by classes, suggests that it is their gang instinct that calls them and that they interpret the church, as Professor Coe phrases it, as "God's gang."

The fact which I have adverted to, to which Dr. Joseph S. Walton first called my attention, that boys to-day in city conditions are oversocialized before they are fully individualized, a fact borne out by the observation that country boys are less strongly influenced on moral levels by the gang, suggests that the group influence is partly artificial as well as natural and is to a degree unwholesome.

Whatever the explanation, the group action of boys in moral matters is a fact of such universal observation as to become of extreme importance and to suggest that perhaps no boy can be measured as to the limits of his moral possibilities while he is a boy until each impulse and action is related by inference to the impulses and acts of his crowd. The advantage of the artificially formed group with its adult leader over the street gang in moral result seems to be that it is possible to key the group ethics up to the level of the best boy, whereas in the gang it is apt to sink into, or below, the level of the worst. The adult usually finds that every group has its one or two key-boys, and he manipulates the group through them. This, which is a commonplace in school teaching, is more than a mere device in boys' clubs. Even more effective, though not so noticeable, in results is the constant, silent attrition of all the boys, leaders and those led, on each other. Both the power and the limitations of self-government schemes, in farm schools or boys' clubs, appear just here. Boys can by such devices rise to the highest level that is existent in the group, but can they, unaided, rise any higher than their own level?

Out of this interplay of influences the adult leader can gradually come to discern this one fact, that he is a more or less passive witness of the formation of a boyish community whose commencement is sound and whose influences are in the main a wholesome school for life.

This work is evidently not one for a mere holiday or for good-natured social volunteering. The issues are too serious, the evolutions are too gradual and slow.

The more one is experienced in work with boys the more he is impressed with a few facts of boy life, which are in the main encouraging but which intensify the earnestness of the problem.

One impression is of the general wholesomeness of boy nature. The testimony, from juvenile court judges, reformatory heads, schoolmasters and workers in religious circles is strongly unanimous that a boy, minus his environment and plus all the heredity in the world, is a pretty good sort. The number of degenerates, theological or actual, is negligible. The degree to which you have the boy on your side when you try to do him good is extraordinary. The fact which was discovered by accident, for example, that in a boys' camp, where there had apparently been no opportunity to do so, every boy had said his prayers, is a case in point.

On the other hand the unpleasant sophistication of modern boys, and especially of city boys, is a modifying fact of great moment. It takes a week in tents to break the crust off a boy, and I fancy the average Sunday school teacher never lifts a corner of it.

But again this sophistication usually rests side by side with an appalling ignorance. The boy is old beyond his time in things which he has seen but he is still a child in experience. Ignorance upon sexual matters is an example which some writers and workers have lately called attention to, an ignorance which no mere formal instruction can apparently cure but which an enlightened development of mind and body can cope with.

I have, however, personally been impressed more by the ignorance of the import of life itself, as manifested in absence of purpose, unwillingness to get ready, lack of sense of the value of money and unwillingness to wait for the rewards of industry. This type of boy is too often coddled in the boys' club. Sometimes the best thing, next to patience, that the leader can give him is his disapproval.

To the boys' club worker, unknown and unappreciated, who meets his boys only once a week in winter and for a bare fortnight in summer, his work may often seem trivial and unproductive. Those who watch it often do so with half contempt and amusement. But it is not so. To the club the boy brings that torch of life which sometimes school and home fail to light—enthusiasm. Here he exercises that instinct which alone keeps men alive and young and at work—play. Here he uses a power so precious that it is given only to youth—the power of making friendships. And here he finds what Charles Kingsley dying said was life's secret—"a friend."

The club is, therefore, a special school, educating the boy in freer fashion than at the desk of the schoolhouse, capturing his presuppositions, allying itself with his enthusiasms and often helping to determine his life's vocation. The club is also an essential agency in religious education, mitigating the fervor and unreality of direct ethical teaching by allowing room for real fellowship between teacher and scholar and giving a chance, in the best clubs, for some of that actual practice in morals which is necessary to any mastery of them. It is, in our time, the needed supplement to the home, affording to boys that larger social education which its own limited numbers cannot give and offering to club leaders so much of the parental function that it may be said to revive in a truer and holier sense the old ecclesiastical office of the godfather, or sponsor for the social and moral future of the child.

THE GROWTH, PRESENT EXTENT AND PROSPECTS OF THE PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT IN AMERICA[1]

By Henry S. Curtis

The playground movement began with the sand gardens of Berlin in 1885; it came to this county in 1886, where the first beginnings were in Boston. This, however, had very little to do with the movement for the rest of the country, and almost nothing is heard of it for the next ten years. In its re-appearance it does not seem that the beginnings in Boston have had any influence on the development in the other cities of America.

About 1898, the time at which playgrounds were taken over by the Board of Education in the City of New York, begins a period of rapid development, a development which has been rapidly accelerating until we found in our statistics of last year that there were then in this country one hundred and seventy-seven cities maintaining playgrounds, as opposed to ninety maintaining playgrounds the year before. This amounts practically to an increase of 100% in the number of cities in a single year; but this increase is only a partial representation of the entire growth because there have been other forms of extension as well. The equipment has been doubled in many of the playgrounds; the period has been lengthened from four or five weeks in the summer time to include the entire year in many municipal playgrounds, and to cover the beginning and end of the school year as well as the summer vacation in some school playgrounds; and through the lighting of the playground at night, the day has been lengthened so that the activities can be carried on up to ten o'clock in the evening in several systems. Contrary to what was expected the attendance also has increased from year to year in the same playgrounds in almost every system, so that the increase in attendance represents a larger percentage than the increase in actual playgrounds.

Increase in Intent

When the playgrounds were first started the idea in the minds of the promoters was to keep children off the streets and away from their physical and moral dangers; but as time has gone

[1] An address at the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

on the movement has taken up a series of positive physical and social ideals which are becoming more definite each year. These are:

First: The promotion of the physical health of children through keeping them in the open air, and giving them increased power of vital resistance through physical exercise. This purpose has been strongly emphasized by the tuberculosis movement, which has been the cause of the opening of many playgrounds abroad, especially in Germany.

Second: The development of physical strength. The work of the modern city child has disappeared. The physical training received in the school, seldom amounting to more than ten or fifteen minutes a day, is a negligible quantity. Practically the only method of training left is play.

Third: The development of vital or organic strength. Nearly all games use old and simple co-ordinations and the fundamental muscles, nearly all of them involve running and so tend to strengthen the heart, lungs and stomach. Vital or organic strength is far more essential to modern life than muscular strength.

Fourth: The establishment of right habits. Children form their habits of courtesy or discourtesy, of kindness or unkindness, of fairness or unfairness, of honesty or dishonesty, primarily in play. All play, being a form of social conduct, is either moral or immoral, and offers the same opportunity for the development of right habits and principles that life itself offers. Further, if we accept with Mr. Royce the tenet that loyalty is the fundamental concept of morality, then we must regard play also as fundamental. All team games approximate the conditions of the tribal life, in which loyalty was born into the race, and gained an intensity which it has never had since.

Fifth: The development of energy and enthusiasms. The boy can not only run faster in playing tag than in going on an errand, but throughout the entire range of his play life he develops a far larger amount of activity than it is possible for him to do in work. Mr. Lee has said: "The boy without a playground is father to the man without a job," which I infer to mean that if a child loafs through his childhood he will probably loaf through his manhood as well. In other words, if we wish a vigorous manhood we must secure a vigorous childhood, and play is the only key to the situation.

Sixth: Pleasure. Through play the child develops a sense of the joy of life and gains a bent toward optimism. The moral value of this unifying experience of play, in which the consciousness of self is sunk in absorbing interest and common things are suffused with unifying feeling, is not to be lightly estimated.

Playgrounds as a Private Philanthropy

The playgrounds began as a private philanthropy all over this country. A women's club, a mothers' club, a civic club, or the Y. M. C. A. began the agitation and undertook to raise the necessary money. Lumber dealers contributed the lumber, athletic houses furnished the supplies, sand yards gave the sand, kindergartners and other teachers contributed their time, and so the movement was begun in most cities.

The next step in organization has usually been the formation of a playground association. Almost every large city that had not already such an association has formed one within the last two years. These associations are often made up of very prominent people and are exercising a strong influence in local affairs. It is in this way that the financial problem is being solved.

The Playground Association of America was formed in Washington in 1906. Its purpose has always been the promotion of the play idea, and the dissemination of information in the form of literature, pictures, lantern slides and lectures so as to help on the movement in the different cities.

Out of its first play festival, held in Chicago in 1907, have grown play festivals in most of the larger cities.

At the same congress was appointed a committee on State Laws with Mr. Lee as chairman. Out of this has grown the State Law for Massachusetts and several other states.

At this same congress in Chicago was appointed a committee on a Normal Course in Play. The general public is apt to think that a playground position is a snap. There is scarcely a supervisor who has not had people come to him and ask for a position, on the ground that they were in some way incapacitated for other work and were thereby peculiarly eligible for a place in the playgrounds; but any one who has had any direct experience in the matter knows that the conduct of play is one of the most difficult feats of moral leadership, and one not to be lightly committed to the incompetent. The whole movement is stumbling and halting in its progress because this high grade leadership cannot be found.

This committee's report will appear in August of this year. It is in three parts. The first or main course is intended for those who would specialize in play leadership as they might in physical training. The second is an institute course, intended for summer schools and for supervisors to use in training their teachers. The third course is intended for normal schools; for it has been the feeling of the committee that it is only through play that the teacher comes to know or to have an influence over the child, that play is rapidly forcing itself into

the curriculum and that the time has come for school systems to take account of it. Such courses in play were given to regular teachers in sixty-seven cities of Germany last year. Courses are being given in this country in at least nine different places this summer, probably more.

Besides the Playground Association of America the Sage Playground Extension Committee employs a field secretary, Mr. Hanmer, and a director, Dr. Gulick, to promote the movement in the different cities. It is also reprinting the best literature and is giving it out at conferences and mailing it over the country.

Apparently there is a present tendency for large benevolences to swerve somewhat from the university toward social channels,—the playgrounds are coming in for their share. The first large gift of this kind in this country was apparently the Children's Play House and Playground in Fairmont Park, Philadelphia, which was built and endowed through the will of Richard and Sarah Smith in 1896. After that there were apparently no, or at least few, large gifts of this kind until two or three years ago when there seemed to be a great awakening on the subject. Probably there were fully twenty gifts of playgrounds to cities last year, and it looks as though the number might be twice as great this year. It seems a peculiarly suitable memorial for a man to leave behind him in his home town. If the process goes on at the present rate for twenty years, it will mean an immense amount in acreage and value presented to the children of the country.

Municipalizing Playground Systems

The various playground systems once privately maintained are being rapidly municipalized. This is very important because in putting the playground under municipal control there is a whole change of attitude toward it. It ceases to be regarded as a charity and becomes a public undertaking, such as the public school. Very much larger sums of money are available for the purchase of sites, for the pay of the workers, and for equipment. When a system is once established under the municipality its extension becomes certain, because no section of a city is willing to pay taxes to furnish to another section facilities with which it is not itself provided. The city of Chicago has expended eleven million dollars on small parks and playgrounds in the last four years. New York has spent fifteen millions in the last ten years, and Boston on her two hundred acres of playgrounds has spent about four millions in all.

Playgrounds are just now the fashion and every city is ambitious to get into the style by making provision for them. We may safely predict that within a very few years every city of

ten thousand inhabitants, and a great many which are smaller, will provide adequate playgrounds for their people.

There is in Germany a public official who is known as a Spiel Inspector, whose work it is to give the courses in play to the teachers, to organize picnics and excursions and contests and provide for the various sports. In our small towns and country sections we need such an official even more than we do the formal playground.

Playground Laws

Probably the most notable single achievement in playgrounds last year was the Massachusetts playground law. This law required every city of ten thousand inhabitants to vote whether or not it would acquire sites and maintain playgrounds. Thus far forty-two cities have voted and forty have voted "yes" with a majority of about five to one. The State of New Jersey passed a bill in 1907 authorizihg the different cities to appoint a Playground Commission to acquire sites, employ teachers and supervise the work. The state of Ohio passed an enabling act to allow the school boards to maintain playgrounds last year; and the State of Indiana has just passed a law modelled after the law of Massachusetts. Minnesota passed a law in May, allowing any city of one hundred thousand inhabitants to issue bonds to the extent of one hundred thousand dollars in order to establish playgrounds. Montana had a bill before its legislature in the spring similar to the Massachusetts law, but I have not heard whether it passed or not. In nearly every state where there has been a vote, the bill has passed with a large majority, so it seems an easy conclusion that every northern state will have a law requiring playgrounds for the children within the next few years.

It is common abroad to have some minimnm school requirement of playground space for each child. Thus far we have few such requirements here; but we are working toward them. As the training of play is more fundamental than the training of the school, there is no good reason why we should not provide a place for it during the school day,—an argument which applies with especial force to the small children.

New York passed a law several years ago, requiring in congested sections roof playgrounds on all new schools. Several model tenement house associations are now providing similar facilities. The changes required even on old buildings, I am assured by architects, are comparatively simple and inexpensive unless the buildings are structurally weak. There are many blocks in lower New York where there are more than two hundred small children to the block. In such sections the problem of adequate municipal playgrounds on the surface is hope-

less, and roof playgrounds should be required by law. The children really need all the space represented by the roof, the interior court, and the street. But if playgrounds were placed on the roof of all armories, schools, libraries, baths, and other public buildings it would mean much to them.

In Berlin playgrounds are required in the interior of tenement blocks. The need of New York is greater than that of Berlin, and sooner or later it must be so here. The small children need the exercise and open air most, and the streets are unsafe for them so that they cannot go to a distance. There are several model housing companies that have already built tenements of this character in this country.

We have also the beginnings of a movement to make the streets themselves more available for play. At present they are too dirty, and too hot for the most part, and some of them are used for traffic at times when this is not necessary. In Boston coasting is permitted in winter on certain streets. In lower New York there has been an attempt to have certain streets closed to traffic from three to six, for play after school. This is a movement that may rightly grow. Not every street in a residence section is needed as a thoroughfare, and the children need the room. They are going to use it anyway, and it is better for them to be safe. An asphalted street does very well for play with a soft ball, for shinney, for ring games, for dancing if there is a hurdy gurdy about, and for roller skating.

In Detroit there has been a movement developing to secure the necessary concessions from owners and throw all the vacant ground of the city open to the children. Where there is vacant land it ought not to stand idle under present conditions.

The Spirit of the American People

As a people we are overworking greatly in a feverish desire to become rich, or learned, or famous or blessed, as our hope may be. If you enter New York in the morning on any of the suburban trains, you will notice that even before the train reaches the station the passengers have crowded the steps to the bottom, and before it comes to a standstill, many have dropped off and bolted for the street cars or the ferry. If, on the other hand, you enter London on a morning train, the passengers usually read until the train stops, when they lay down their papers, pick up their parcels and depart in a dignified manner. There is something in the atmosphere of America which seems to say: "The problems of life must be solved this year, the work of the world must be done in this generation; we must waste no moment and keep our bench in the galley until our head swims and our body cries out with weariness." I would not minimize the need of effort, but I would emphasize

the need of poise. We should see that the great work of life cannot be done in haste. We may do more work by rushing, but we do work of a poorer quality and often work that need not have been done at all. We are crowding the pleasure out of it by the long hours and undue strenuousness; and, on the whole, a man will achieve most in life when he works at the rate at which he enjoys it best. We are both doing less by working more ourselves, and we are also squandering the vitality of the next generation as well.

Another class of our people is spending a large part of its time in idleness, which means for the most part in dissipation. For both of these classes the solution of the problem is the same, a love of sport and outdoor life, which will keep the one class from overworking and the other from destroying itself in its leisure. We need such an official as the German Spiel Inspector to organize our sports and create outdoor enthusiasms for our people.

The play movement this year is swinging strongly toward general recreation. The focus is shifting from the child to the people, from the public playground to public recreation.

There is really no difference between play and work at its best. The play of the children is derived from the work of our ancestors. The physician or lawyer or writer who enjoys his work probably finds it no less play than he found the games of his childhood. Modern factory work is deadly because it is work in which there is no play. It produces a large output, but it destroys the worker; and the worker after all is the most important product of the factory. Such conditions inevitably produce social unrest, strikes and discontent. Work is the major part of life, and, if it is uninteresting and joyless, life is scarcely worth the living. One of the greatest reforms that could be made, a reform that would effect tremendously every other social movement would be such a change in working conditions as would enable the worker to take more interest in his work. In many cases this would be effected with a mere change of method. In nearly every case by giving a little thought to the subject the employer might make the work more interesting than it now is without loss of efficiency. In some cases it may be that the only solution is to shorten the hours of labor so as to lighten the strain, for toil that is pure drudgery is demoralizing to every faculty of man, whether physical, social, intellectual or moral. In other cases, a little more variety and progression from task to task is all that is necessary. Ultimately the greatest problem the play movement has to solve is the problem of work itself.

STORY TELLING AS A LIBRARY TOOL[1]

By ALICE A. BLANCHARD, Public Library, Newark, N. J.

The subject which the printed programme for this morning's session assigns to me is How to guide children's reading by Story Telling. I must begin my talk by an apology; for I shall speak upon only a limited phase of that subject. The subject of guiding children's reading by story telling is a pretty broad one. Tell a good story to a child and he wants to read the book from which it comes. This simple statement means that wherever the child is, at home, at school, in the playground, in the library, in Sunday School, in the settlement, we can exercise a very direct influence upon his reading taste by the stories we tell him. Story telling is a most excellent method of advertising the good books of the world. I shall consider it as a means of advertising books from the librarian's point of view, and treat it simply as a library method, calling it, if you will let me, a library tool.

Story telling is becoming widely popular in schools, in libraries and as a profession by itself. We know that it is an effective method of reaching and influencing children, and that as a method it has advantages over the printed word. Libraries are considering it a part of their work and are using it on a more or less elaborate scale.

It may be too soon, for we have not been using it very long, to know just what place story telling should take in the work of the library; but some of us feel that we are not considering the subject with sufficient care, that we are letting our enthusiasm run away with our common sense in the matter, a little too much in the manner of our friend who has the automobile fever and forgets that life can hold anything else.

It is evident that since no public library ever has enough time and money at its disposal for the work it has to do, it cannot afford to undertake story telling or any other activity which does not further this work. We say that the function of public library work with children is to give them an intelligent love for the best books, and in trying to do this we must reach the greatest number of children at the least expense.

[1] An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

If story telling can be an effective tool, enabling us to reach with books more children at less expense than any other method at our command, then it has a legitimate place in library work. If it cannot do this we should let it alone.

Most of us feel that schools and libraries have experimented with story telling long enough now to prove that it has its place as a legitimate and valued tool of the library. At the same time we see these facts, however; many libraries do not understand what this place is; many libraries are using story telling as a tool for another's work at the expense of their own; and some libraries are using story telling when, because of their peculiar situation, another tool would better answer their purpose.

If the library is to use story telling it must be to bring children and books together. This it can do successfully. Library reports show that it has interested thousands of children in the library, increased greatly the general circulation of books from the children's shelves, and created popularity for the books from which the stories were selected.

Incidentally, the Story Hour makes a delightful form of entertainment, for the average child loves to hear stories told. It also establishes a very pleasant personal relation between the children who hear the story and the person who tells it. Herein lies a danger for the library of which we take too little account. Because she can by her stories so delightfully entertain her audience and thereby win their affection the story-teller is tempted to lose sight of the purpose of her stories, namely, to guide the children's reading. If she does forget this purpose, her stories, although they may bring the children week after week in throngs, will leave them where they were before, so far as their reading taste is concerned. The fact that the Story Hour makes a delightful form of entertainment, the fact that it establishes a pleasant personal relation between story teller and children, must not be the reason for its adoption by the library. The story teller must tell stories from books which are to be found upon the library shelves and she must tell the children that they are there. Unless the Story Hour advertises the best books, and results in an increased use of them, the library is wasting time and money in its story telling —to put the matter in its most favorable light.

In the second place, many libraries are making the mistake of trying to do too many things with the story telling tool. They forget that the school tells stories, that it can give the child thereby plenty of facts in science, history, geography, and what not; that it teaches him by means of stories, morals and politeness. They forget that the city does not pay them for doing this school work or for doing the work of the play-

grounds and parks in keeping children off the streets. Much can be done by the library in all these ways; but it happens that the work which belongs peculiarly to the library and which no other institution can at present do for it, is to give good books to all the children in the city,—a task which of itself is enough for any library to hope to do. Therefore we should discard from our story telling all the lessons we are trying to teach, our Christmas tree, our May poles, our fancy costumes and whatever pretty games we play, and simply tell the children stories from books. Fortunately a good story from a book is enough to delight a child without any accompanying frills, so that the time we save by discarding them does not in the least detract from its efficiency.

And we must tell the stories to children. It has been said of one library and, moreover, with some pride, that the story hour was so popular that many grown people came to it; indeed sometimes there was little room left for the children!

Thirdly, the average library does not sufficiently consider whether in its particular case, story telling is the best tool at its command. What is a good tool in one case may not be in another and a given library may be sacrificing much better work when it takes time, as it must always do, from something else for the story hour.

Often a small library has no story teller upon its staff, but it may be doing effective work with children through its work with teachers, its visits to schools and its children's room. It has a small staff and no room adapted for telling stories at the library. Obviously such a library has no need for the story telling tool, yet many libraries like this are struggling hard to use it. Once a week or oftener they are allowing all the usual routine of the library to be upset to accommodate the Story Hour, the story teller has spent many hours of preparation and is under a strain that is little short of misery, and the children, because of the general difficulty of the whole situation, are deriving no greater love for books nor respect for the library. Such a library would do better to give up story telling and put its energy into what it could do more effectively.

But here let me say that often the small library thinks it has no use for story telling as a tool when as a matter of fact it has.

Children's librarians in large or small libraries count school visiting as part of their work. The school visit offers the best of opportunities for the work of the Story Hour. A story told at the end of an informal little talk about the library will bring the children flocking to the library the minute school is over. The small library which has no Story Hour room but

which has a story teller can take advantage of this opportunity and do much with it. The story teller can visit three schoolrooms on different days, tell stories to forty children each time, and because the story telling is distributed over the three days, manage with comparative ease the influx of 120 children who may come for books as a result. More than this, the story teller can have told three stories instead of one, so that only one-third of the children will clamor for the same book. This last point is important as all who have had story-hour experience know.

And it is not always the small library which might better tell its stories in school. Consider the city library which has a story teller who tells stories at a Branch. She gets crowds of children, it is true, but many more do not come. She has too many for her story room. Even if she repeats her story until all the eager children get in eventually to hear it the results are of doubtful benefit. It has meant a fearfully strenvous day for the story teller and for the whole Branch; the chances are that the last children to hear the tale gained little from it because the story teller was too tired to tell it well; many of the children have spent most of the afternoon in the scuffle of trying to get in and having to wait when they might have been out of doors playing; and practically all the children were the same ones who always come. And, as in a small library, all the children want the same books, if the stories were good.

School people, as a rule, are very cordial to the library story teller. Since they are, this method seems preferable to the Story Hour at the library. The story teller, besides being spared the difficulty of managing the story hour at the library, has a better opportunity to keep in touch with school work; can reach all the children instead of the same group week after week; interests teacher as well as the children in the books from which the stories are told; and saves the library considerable money in janitor work and heat and light bills. Probably the story teller has neither time nor strength to tell stories both in school and library. Would she not be wise in such a case to tell her stories in the schoolroom?

There is another thing that should be said of story telling as a library tool. If we aim by stories to advertise the best books, how shall we tell the stories to make the books seem most attractive and to get the best results?

We say that the impression the child gets from a story told is greater than that gained from a story read. Then we proceed to tell him in our own words stories which we adapt from the books we think he should know, trusting that he will want the books themselves as a result. Well and good for those

books which depend for their value upon subject matter, regardless of style; for folk-lore, for many of the fairy tales and other stories, but not equally well and good for books that are valuable for their literary forces. If a story is dramatic enough for the telling and is written by a master, is it not a shame to give it to a child in an inferior form when he might have it as it was written? If a master did it, it is every bit as dramatic and as easy for the child to understand in the form in which the master wrote it as in the story teller's version, and many times more beautiful.

Why do children's librarians spend so much time in the preparation of their own versions of the good stories of the world when they have so much material which they can use at first hand? The theory is, that a story has more life if told in the story teller's words, that it is likely to be stiff and formal if she must confine herself to the author's words. This need not be so. If the story teller enjoys the story, as a story teller always must, if she appreciates the charm of its expression as the author wrote it, and sees the value of this charm, the author's words will come easily from her lips with all the life of the original. She may have had to cut the original more or less, but that can usually be done without perceptibly marring the story. If the tale does not lend itself to this kind of treatment and she feels that she must adapt the whole thing for her audience, she can at least quote paragraphs. If the story teller gives the child her own version, the child wants the story because or in spite of what she put into it. He gets the book, fails to find the story teller part of it and, as that is all he is after, puts the book, down or finds the real thing and thinks the teller didn't know it very well, for "She left out some of the best parts."

I am not saying that the story teller's version is worthless. It is good as far as it goes. I am only saying that by it we often miss an opportunity to give the children something better. None of us can tell the Andersen or the Kipling stories as well as the men who wrote them. Why not give them to the children "straight out of the book," as the children say, and why not, for instance, when we are telling stories of the Trojan War, give them passages verbatim from Bryant's Iliad? This kind of story telling may take more time for preparation than the other for some people, it is true, but the resulting benefit is greater. The librarian who has once told an Andersen story in the words of a close translation will never want to do it in her own again.

In spite of all we say about giving him the best books, are we not giving the child too little credit for literary appreciation? Are not some of our simplified versions of the good

stories of the world a little too simple? We refuse to leave upon our shelves such foolish things as the Hiawatha primer, or the Stevenson reader (this gives upon one page a poem from the child's garden and on the opposite page a neat translation!), and yet do we not offend sometimes in the same way in our story telling? Let us not run the risk of spoiling the atmosphere and beauty of a good tale by over-adapting it. If it is beyond the child's comprehension in the beginning, let us leave it for him to find when he is older. If our library story telling has been what it should be, the road will be an easy one for him to follow.

THE FUNCTIONING OF THE SUNDAY SCHOOL[1]

Abstract of Address by PATTERSON DUBOIS, Philadelphia

An institution, to be worthy of support, must have a consciously definite and distinctive purpose. In proportion as it efficiently carries out this purpose it may be said to function.

What is the function of the Sunday school? Much has been written and spoken on the "aim" of the teacher and perhaps of the school. It is said to be the bringing of scholars to Christ; or the upbuilding of Christian character; or the teaching of the Bible. According to Dr. Faunce, Christianity is to make good men. If so, the Sunday school is an institution planned for this purpose. If Sunday school youths became bad men and women, the Sunday school has failed to function as it should. I propose to indicate some reasons why it fails, and also to point out some ways of aiding the religious school to more adequately function.

Prof. Wm. James recently told a graduating class that the use of a college education is to help the student to know a good man when he sees him. The more I think of this the more does it strike me as a profound truth.

At the funeral of a certain political boss in Philadelphia, 12,000 persons looked upon the corpse with evident affection and sorrow. He had done little kindnesses for many of them and this was why they thought him good and loved him. But he had "fixed" juries, promoted ballot-box stuffing, held up the filter plant and in many ways warred against the social good. But these admirers, for personal reasons, did not see how he injured them. They did not know that they did not see a good man in a social enemy.

Do we know a good Sunday school when we see it? If the function of the Sunday school is to make people good, do we train the pupils to know goodness when they see it? A school may grow in numbers; it may show the record of many promotions, many prizes, much money collected—and yet may function poorly as a maker of good people. It may have a teachers' training class and yet administratively nullify the very principles of pedagogy in which the teachers have been

[1] An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

instructed. It may boast that it keeps open all summer without any real evidence that it functions better for not closing. Like an evangelist or personal worker, it may count up its apparent "conversions" without knowing whether it has made people good. All religious work is to be tested by debit and credit, by damage as well as by gain. The waste pile must be weighed in order to determine whether the machine functions.

The efficiency of a machine is the ratio of useful work performed by it to the whole work expended upon it. This is equally true of the Sunday school. Reports of religious work are not likely to show this ratio. Dr. Ayres, of the Russell Sage Foundation, suggests three forms of ratio or verbal fractions as a test of educational work.

These are the ratio of the work done to the work undertaken; that of work undertaken to work necessary; that of work done to work necessary. If the ratio of work done to work necessary or even to work undertaken, is small, then the Sunday school has functioned badly.

Some time ago the chief officer of the Ohio penitentiary reported that 75 per cent. of the convicts there had been Sunday school pupils. Jane Addams said recently that the 15,000 youthful law-breakers arraigned in Chicago in a year, had all had at some time some degree of religious instruction. If the Sunday schools attended by the Ohio boys had functioned well would there have been as many convicts? And we know many in our own circles who do things which good men do not do.

What about the International Lessons? Do the young men and women who have been brought up on them from childhood know as much Bible as their fathers and grandfathers knew before the "one lesson for all" system was established?

President Eliot says that football is now old enough to permit our testing it by the men who excelled in it twenty years ago. So may we test these lessons and the Sunday school of the past thirty years by their fruits of to-day. Is the Christian life more moral than it was? Has the Sunday school raised the ideal?

The Sunday school has not functioned even reasonably well —judging from the general moral level and by the lack of biblical knowledge. It has laid too much stress on alliterative and other surface tricks to catch, hold and impress pupils. Its standards of comparison and importance have been in large degree false standards—as already noted. The Sunday school has not always known a good thing when it saw it. How many teachers, to say nothing of pupils, know virtues and vices when they see them? It is easy to misname an act. Do we know courage, self-control, jealousy, generosity, shame,

justice, when we see them? We need more training in ethical discrimination. Our teachers must be taught to teach true morals and to quicken an appreciation of right.

Now I want to lay stress on two great causes of the Sunday school's frequent failure to function as a maker of good men. The first is the personal character of too many who work or teach in the school. On this point much is spoken and written and I need say no more.

The second seems to have escaped the notice of convention speakers and the writers and editors. It is the moral character of the school administration itself—a matter not only of things permitted but of things ordered as method.

Promises are broken, moving pictures of unwholesome suggestion are exhibited, banners and prizes are unfairly won and held by individuals and by classes, and in various other ways the conduct of the school is too often directly at variance with the soundest ethical and religious teaching in the classes. In short, the school conduct is, to speak plainly, not seldom unethical and immoral, and it cannot, in the nature of the case function adequately as a moral agency under such conditions. And what is true in the more strictly ethical or moral domain is also true in the more essentially religious sentiments—such as reverence.

Of course the school fails to function for more strictly pedagogical reasons. It is no secret nowadays that the Sunday school's inefficiency grows largely out of a certain pettiness, scrappiness, effeminacy, lack of progression in curriculum, superficial trickery—such as alliterations and fanciful "applications,"—the glad hand, catechisms, inappropriate and unrelated curricula, and adultism. But of these I am not speaking, since critics are quite cognizant of them. My essential message has been the correction of the very prevalent tendency to what might be called a moral suicidal insanity in the administrative order and control of the school. I put this first because of its undermining power—a power which no curriculum as such, and no personal excellence of the individual teacher can wholly overcome.

Now constructively: An efficient and functioning school must:

1. Permit and encourage independent thinking, problematic thinking. The teacher must avoid cocksureness, timid evasion, glossing, self deception, and must show the open mind.

2. Cultivate the moral discrimination as applied to concrete life, and rate Bible men and women without prejudice. The practice of thinking things through to ultimate ethical results is of vast training value.

3. Credit other religions. The habit of sweeping them by

as altogether wicked is likely to bring recoil. Here is where the missionary factor comes in. Missionary work succeeds in proportion as it finds a point of contact with the heathen in a common truth or attitude.

4. Regard the sanction of the Christian experience of the ages as essential to the truest reverence for the Bible and for God. Within limits, this is historical study, but it is also personal testimony. It is not church history as such, but it draws upon church history. It notes the development of Christian civilization and is in a degree comparative.

5. Introduce self-expression through the hand as well as through the tongue. The correlation of manual and oral work is positively necessary. It is, indeed, the laboratory method.

6. Have elective courses for post-graduates past sixteen years of age.

7. Organize an adult class for instruction in the fundamentals of Church charity and relief work. The Church has stood too much aloof from scientific methods in its philanthropic activities—and it has suffered by it. Christianity has suffered by it.

8. Consider the defective children. Give them special opportunities as is now being done in the day schools. Guard them, however, from stigma or conspicuous segregation. When they are distinctly immoral because defective, see that they are not a cause of deterioration to other or normal children.

These points are not descriptive of an organized school. The literature of organization and methods is already ample. But I believe that some, at least, of these suggestions ought to go far toward increasing school efficiency in the function of making good men and women. Let no one imagine that there is a pessimistic note here. The Sunday school has already proved a mighty agency for good in this country and the world around. But it has yet to come into a worthy realization of itself as an organ of righteousness in the sight of God as well as in the promotion of a true fellowship with God It is moving forward. Let us realize our responsibility in hastening and guiding the movement.

WHAT IS BEING DONE FOR GIRLS WHO GO WRONG[1]

By Mrs. Jessie D. Hodder

Social Service Department, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston

In the few minutes at my disposal I shall not try to cover the whole field, nor to describe the broad range of activities which exist in behalf of girls in sex troubles. Rather, I shall attempt to develop certain principles which have come to me in my work at the Social Service Department at the Massachusetts General Hospital, those principles being, it seems to me, of universal application.

The physicians of the various clinics of the Out-patient send to me unmarried pregnant girls, those who have venereal diseases, those who are alcoholic, and those who have been exposed to these dangers. I shall speak here only of those who are soon to be mothers.

A conventional attitude towards such girls is well set forth, it seems to me, in the following letter which I care to read to you: "My dear Mrs. Hodder: The last of March I wrote to Miss C. . . . about a girl here. She was pregnant, and you advised her marrying the man who was responsible for her condition because they loved each other, and this seemed to me reasonable as, at the time, I thought it was X. . . ., to whom she was engaged. It turns out that he is not the man. The man is a young fellow who was never in love with her—with whom she was never in love and whom she loathes. Marriage between them, under the circumstances, seemed to be adding only another wrong to the ones already committed. The girl went away, and by the advice of some one, went to a Home in Boston where her baby was born three weeks ago. She wants to leave there now—she does not want to take her baby. I do not approve of this, and I know the best thing is for the mother to have her child; but she cannot support it, and she does not feel that she can take it and bring it up without any father.

"My appeal to you is to tell me where the child can go and what can be done with it: will you kindly write me? The

[1] An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

girl is a very interesting country girl, used to working out of doors on a farm. She is musical, sings very well, plays the piano well, played the violin in an orchestra and the organ in church. She is a high-school graduate. I do not want her to come back here. The father is a Harvard graduate, who has worked his way through college, and who is in debt. He cannot take care of the child, nor take the responsibility of its support. Will you not tell me of the name of some institution where the child can be put? Do you know of any place where the mother can go? The child might be adopted, and is probably strong and vigorous. I know you will wish the mother to keep it—I do. There is no question of her marrying the man—she would not, and he does not care to marry her, and cannot, at present."

This letter was answered as follows:

"I remember the case very well, and am glad indeed to try to answer your questions. Every situation of this kind is a difficult one to solve because we lose our calm. I do not agree with you that the girl cannot keep her baby. Think of the widows you know who are bringing up their children, who have had no education, nothing but their hands to earn with, and untrained hands, at that. Having a baby is not like having a boil or a pimple. A poultice or time would dispose of either of the latter and leave the patient as she was Disposing of a baby does not leave either its mother or father where they were before—and what of the baby? Go look at the wards of the state—see those at the reform schools, the women in the prisons, the boys in the reform schools and boys' prisons—and see how many of them do not know who their parents were,—they are children who have not asked to come into this world, and many of them have been shuffled off by selfish parents.

"This mother can take care of her baby, I feel perfectly sure; and she will be a bigger, braver woman if she does, as you realize. I can imagine no more horrible fate than to feel that my baby—my own flesh and blood—was somewhere around in the world, I knew not where. Take this girl's life so far, add this experience (I mean the sex experience), then add the experience of carrying and giving birth to her baby, plus the care she will have had of it so far, then subtract the baby—put it selfishly, brutally out of her life—and what is there left? You see we stop being twenty, and we come to be forty, and we care a lot, if our feelings are worth having. Life ceases to mean existence and comes to mean soul and all that goes to make it richer, more worth while. You and I, and every one who is helping the girl in this sorrow, must not lose sight of this and the years to come. Can there be anything more awful than to wake up and realize that one has thrown away

an opportunity? Surely that is what would happen if that baby is given away. I have seen too many girls find in their baby all they have hungered for, to be willing to fall in with the plans of a woman who, through fear and shame, shrank from her baby and the disgrace it would bring upon her.

"How about the chance to develop the man morally? What bigger debt has he contracted in this world than his debt to his own child? Why cannot he deny himself and spend $10 a month towards its support? Why cannot he take out a savings bank insurance policy for $1,000 for the child, payable at its twentieth birthday? Its mother might take out one for $500. In the mean time, both contribute toward its support and schooling. You, or some one equally interested, might be appointed guardian for the child, and see that when it grew up it learned a trade or went to college,—its father did, you say. Say that to him. Make him feel that his baby, illegitimately born, is just as human a being, just as sensitive, just as ambitious, as a baby born in wedlock, or as he was when he struggled and worked his way through college.

"I cannot feel that the community has any growth so long as its members are shirkers. This I am not saying to you—I am saying it to all of us who turn and run from an illegitimate baby, or any other evidence of our own self-indulgence or wrong-doing.

"If we do not hold the man up to the mark in these cases, he is justified in feeling, not only that it is not immoral for him to do such things (he sees how society treats the girl), but that, by some perversion or twist of the social order, which does not apply to women, he has no obligation to his offspring. What is he on earth for, then? To whom *does* he owe his obligations? To society?—his child is society. To his neighbor?—his child is his nearest neighbor. His child is both, and closer than both, and we must make him feel this until he aches. The girl must help us. Of course she must not marry him if they do not love each other; but unless he shares the care of the child he will see no reason why he should not seduce any and every girl his brutal selfishness leads him toward; surely, thereby, his sense of citizenship, fatherhood, and the rest, are weakened. For the sake of his moral welfare, for the sake of his child, for the sake of the next girl he may know, for the sake of the community in which he lives and upon which they would throw the care of this child, he must be made to share the responsibility of the child's support and care.

"This is a brief outline of what you must show her and him, only you will have to do it from many, many points of view, and again and again. Her community knows what has happened. She has in her heart a justification or condemnation of

herself. Let her go back to her community. Let her earn, and support her child, and let the best that is in her shine forth and force all to respect her. I can tell you, privately, that you can have the child adopted. I beg you not to say so to her, or let her feel that any one can take her baby but herself. Spend, please, all of your energy in boosting her up on the side of earning her living, facing her community, loving her baby; and then, if the love of her betrothed is real, he will find added to it that deep respect that comes from seeing a strong person suffer bravely—nay, gladly. The Harvard father, too, will have been made a co-sufferer, and therefore a richer, better man."

No mention is made here of her family, because in a former letter, it had been indicated that she had none. It is, however, my habit during the first talk with a girl after she has learned the doctor's diagnosis, to try to get at her attitude toward her family, her mother, herself, her child and society. I usually find that she has not confided in her mother, and I attempt to establish that confidence. The results of this are sometimes most happy, and solve the whole problem.

X . . ., a tall, sensitive girl, a faithful worker in a factory, the main support of the family, was fond of dancing, and fond of the young man she went with. Her whole thought when she knew of her condition was to leave home, and hide. Her people were "black" (meaning bigoted), she said, and would turn her out. I saw and talked with her mother and she was, on the contrary, kind and helpful. She was troubled and frightened, of course, but there was no thought of turning her daughter out. The older sister saw the young man in question, to whom X . . . had been ashamed to speak. He was much disturbed to think she had suffered alone, and they were married at once.

If marriage is desired by both parties, I try to help it along; but I should never recommend forcing it. I always see the men in question unless they run, which they mostly do. Those who *do* come to my home are those who care for the girl. They are *so* grateful for a talk about a higher standard of sex relations. I have felt in their responsiveness a deeper hope than in almost anything else. If they can be so eager to learn the truth and the ideal about the human body and the sex relations, why does not that show us that, had they been taught early enough, they, at least, would not have joined the ranks of those who seduce innocent girls?

The next point I wish to make is about the feeble-minded girl. All of us who are in this work should study, and be able to recognize the feeble-minded girl,—I mean the border-line case. She can be self-supporting in an institution, and happy there. She is an easy prey to base men; I should recommend

taking almost any degree of trouble in order to put her under custodial care.

But if we assume that a girl is normal, merely reconciling her to her home does not solve the problem. Pregnancy in unmarried girls is not a mere accident. Frequently she has fallen into fault because she is weak and needs building up in character. In this process mother love is a mighty power, but a girl needs outside help as well, for her way is terribly hard. Over and above the social brand which she must carry, to get onto her feet, and support not simply herself, but her child, is a vast undertaking.

Y . . . was betrayed by the "man of the house". She had been engaged for five years to a man she loved. She wanted an abortion when she came to me, meaning, after it was over, to go to her home and marry her betrothed. When she found what an abortion meant she gave it up and planned to give her baby away and then marry her lover without a word of confession. She was backed up in this by the father of her child.

Y . . . and I have now known each other for over a year. She is a faithful and true mother to her baby, and plans to tell her lover the truth when he comes from their far-away home. I prosecuted the father of her child, and with her consent have put the $500 settlement money in the bank at interest, for the baby's education. I am his legal guardian, and we plan —she and I—to give him as good an education as he will take. She is earning his and her living at ladies' fine laundry work. She and I have had many a pleasant afternoon ironing together when it has been necessary to teach her to do the more complex pieces of work. Sometimes I have ironed with the baby across my lap when there was rush work to do, or he was restless. It has been a long, slow, patient process, teaching her her duty toward womankind and its ideals. It is like nursing a sick child into health; and it is a comfort to have her realize how far she has gone, and to see her look back and wonder how she could ever have felt as she once did.

Still more difficult is the case of Z . . ., for over and above the care of her and her child, the entire family needed working with. The trouble here lies a generation back; the father is feeble-minded. Society should never have allowed such a man to bring a family into existence nor to bear the responsibility of it. He has had to be put on probation for drinking and non-support. Inadequate food supply, anxiety and overwork brought the mother to drink. There are six children, all of whom are in my care for medical and moral reasons.

I have dwelt upon the growth that can come in a woman who clings to her child and rears it in the face of heavy odds. But that growth does not come of necessity; hence:

(a) The social worker should not assume that mother love and ability to care for the child is just a natural process that will come to pass if society does not interfere; but, on the contrary, every step should be taken to see that the mother love and capacity to care for the child does develop and that the burden is not heavier than an unaided girl can carry.

(b) If the mother proves to have no moral fibre, or, at any rate, if moral fibre does not develop, and the outlook is that the baby will be dragged into the gutter along with the mother, then the mother and child should be separated, and the child provided for as best one may. While a good mother is the best thing in the world, a bad mother comes near being the worst, and we should not be sentimental about the mere fact of motherhood. Society is coming more and more to recognize itself as over-parent, and should demand that every child in the natural home shall be reared as a good citizen. In these illegitimate children, with only half a home to start with, it is a clear duty to enforce this standard; and just crudely to leave every illegitimate child with its mother, good or bad, capable or incapable, devoted or criminally careless, would be a wrong to many children and to the state.

My last point—and I wish it might be a strong one—is the need of protection for immigrant girls. Immigrant girls are peculiarly exposed. Many of this class come to me—perhaps about half the number I receive in a year. As prevention is better than cure, steps should be taken to safeguard better the friendless young girls who come in such numbers to our country. The men they meet tell them this is a land of liberty (in the sense of loose morals), that "all women in America are immoral". If early in their experience they get some such blow as motherhood we can do much for them; those who escape that become more and more reckless, they go the way of drink, promiscuity and the like, and are most difficult to do anything for.

These girls often come equipped with a trade of distinct value to our country, and from lack of opportunity drift into inferior work and inferior moral standards. I knew of a young girl who, recently, landed in Boston; she was fortunate enough to come to the notice of one of our splendid women who knew that she was an expert in the making of real lace. The things she made were works of art. Why let her drift into second-rate housework, where too few of us teach high standards, when she possesses skill in a trade distinctly beautiful?

Could we not, each and all of us, feel that it is our duty as citizens of the world to help these girls to the right thing when they land? And could we not, too, teach the men they meet a different ideal of American womanhood?

HOW MUCH CHILDREN ATTEND THE THEATRE, THE QUALITY OF THE ENTERTAINMENT THEY CHOOSE AND ITS EFFECT UPON THEM[1]

By EDWARD H. CHANDLER, Secretary of the Twentieth Century Club, Boston

If it should be discovered that a new and curious disease had made its appearance in our cities, selecting for its special victims only boys and girls from ten to fourteen years of age; if this disease should be found to produce the ghastly effect of so paralyzing the bodies of those upon whom it fastened as to render them inefficient for the remainder of their lives; if no cure could be applied after the disease had secured a firm foothold; —it is not difficult to imagine the excited public sentiment which would be aroused. Every doctor would be besieged by anxious parents. The health authorities would be both entreated to do something to stay the impending evil and threatened if they did not. Those who had no children of their own would be as much concerned as the parents, for the future stability of society would be threatened. The very life blood of the city would be in danger of being poisoned beyond recovery.

Is it not possible that a social force may become so insidious in its influence as to sap the mental and moral strength of the young people in a similar way? And if such an evil result as the paralysis of both feeling and will before the age of fourteen years should appear and its cause could be traced to some definite public institution like the theatre, would it not be reasonable to expect the same excited public sentiment and the same eager efforts to overcome the evil at its source.

As the result of a suspicion that going to what are commonly called "shows" was not only a growing habit among city children, but the cause of much injury to their mental and moral health, an effort was made in Boston last winter to ascertain facts enough for a fair conclusion. Several settlements investigated the children of their clubs and classes and several schools secured a report from their pupils. The results may be separated into several distinct groups, answering the questions: How much do the average city children attend public amusements? What do they like best? What is the effect upon them?

[1]A paper prepared for the Conference on Child Welfare held at Clark University, Worcester, in July, 1909.

1. The frequency of attendance can be ascertained with much definiteness.

The master of a grammar school district in the West End reports: "I have inquired of 235 boys from ten to fourteen years of age; 65 of these go to the theatre two times or more per week on the average. Nearly all are occasionally patrons."

A head worker of a large settlement in the same district gives these figures: 201 boys and girls questioned. Of 93 boys all but 2 go to the theatre occasionally and 78 go once a week. Of 108 girls all but 7 go often and 18 go once a week.

From the South End House comes the statement that "of the boys practically all over twelve go with some frequency, and many go very frequently."

In a Roxbury school district of girls 174, or ten per cent. of the whole number, were found to attend some theatre once a week or oftener.

Other settlements and schools estimated from one tenth to one third as the proportion of their boys and girls who made weekly visits to some show.

From these scattered testimonies it seems fair to assume that in Boston nearly all the children between ten and fourteen years of age attend some sort of theatre occasionally and that not less than ten per cent. of them go as often as once a week.

2. Undoubtedly every moving-picture show is popular with these children. The novelty of this form of entertainment has by no means disappeared. Not only children but hosts of "grown-ups" are attracted by this curious combination of truth and fiction put so attractively before the eyes. The variety of subjects is endless. So skillfully has the art of photography been combined with artificially arranged acting that there is practically no historical occurrence or fiction of the imagination which cannot be represented on the vitalized screen. More than this, the tricks of photography make it possible to produce extraordinary and grotesque effects, as if anything, however impossible in fact, were simple enough when arranged by the camera.

Another reason for the attractiveness of this form of entertainment lies in the license allowed in the scenes represented. Burglaries, hairbreadth escapes, accidents, thrilling adventures, flirtations, and every sort of practical joke, can all be represented here as they could not be by actual living men and women. Curiously public sentiment often permits to be pictorially presented actions which it would not tolerate from living actors on the stage. Since there is a strong human interest in seeing vice in action, pictures with this motive are very common. One gets more vice for the money in moving pictures

than on the stage. And the adolescent boys and girls are on hand to take it all in.

Next to the moving-picture show in popularity is vaudeville, including every sort of acrobatic or musical or pantomimic or burlesque or genuinely dramatic feature which can be condensed into a half hour. The boys like the athletic or humorous acts with rough horse play. The girls are fascinated by the popular songs and the unconventional dancing. Apparently nothing nowadays is too good for vaudeville provided it be interesting. There has been a time, fortunately passing, when nothing was too bad for vaudeville if a perverted taste demanded it.

The simplest reason why most city children attend moving-picture and vaudeville shows rather than the plays at the other theatres is the low price. A nickel or a dime is far easier to get than a quarter. If there were more good plays for children written and if these plays were performed at prices within their reach many boys and girls, perhaps all, would choose them in preference to what they now seem to prefer. Unfortunately it is but rarely that Peter Pan or any one like him appears. And the children feel no sense of responsibility for the "elevation of the stage" by attending plays which deal with human problems beyond their comprehension or which thrill with emotions they have never felt.

3. What is the effect of the shows upon children? Let those who are closest to them speak. One young man who has a large experience with boys' clubs puts the matter this way: "Theatre-going makes the boys crave excitement and unable to apply themselves to a serious task. The results of the late hours are laziness and dullness in school, loss of interest in work, leading to slow promotion, dropping out of school at fourteen and a small paying job for the rest of their lives."

The head of an industrial school notes the "lowered moral standard and the desire for excitement caused by the incessant theatre-going."

One group of girls in a settlement, when giving amateur representations of what they had seen at shows, chose elopements, burglaries, and tragic scenes.

"It makes children blasé and unappreciative of the natural forms of amusement for children of that age. They learn things they should not know. It takes them out of their homes to objectionable parts of the city. The amount spent is out of all proportion to their income."

One of the most careful observers gives this estimate of the effect of theatre-going: "The girls show a desire to become actresses, to be noticeable in dress, and to assume the mannerisms and slang of the stage. With the boys it helps to ac-

centuate their lack of refinement and they learn many coarse and foolish jokes. In both it inculcates a desire for more amusement which very soon becomes a seeming necessity. We believe it stunts and lowers the moral nature by constantly putting forward low standards of character."

The master of the West End Grammar school already quoted reports that "nearly every one of the 65 boys (whom he found to be attending the theatre at least twice a week) is a dull scholar, listless and inattentive in school, sometimes actually sleepy on account of late hours and loss of normal rest."

Add to these words the testimony of the oculists that constant gazing at the flickering lights of the moving pictures is injurious to the eyesight and there seems to be a sum total of evil effects which ought to give occasion for deep solicitude. To be physically stunted for life at fourteen years of age is surely no worse than to lose the capacity for mental concentration and the fine bloom of youthful idealism and honor.

The remedy for the situation must be applied at various points. To begin with there needs to be a changed conception of the needs of a child for public amusement. It is safe to say that no boy or girl under fourteen is benefited by weekly attendance at any form of public entertainment, especially in the evening, no matter how good the "show" may be. To break into a child's normal sleep is an injustice which is not counteracted by the elevating character of the entertainment attended. And when the character is not elevating but merely an unnatural stimulus the harm is twofold. A healthy child should get its stimulus in the daylight hours and its amusements should be for the most part self-directed and out-of-doors. Even the city street has its advantages over the city's cheap theatres as at present conducted.

But granted that a certain amount of indoor entertainment is desirable for children, especially for those whose homes are destitute of inspiration or opportunity, what remedy shall be applied to the entertainments themselves?

Here it is encouraging to report that remarkable progress has recently been made in regulating the moving pictures. The largest film manufacturers, including representatives of foreign firms, have established in New York, at their own expense, a board of censors including not only their own agents but prominent representatives of education and philanthropy. As the local theatres throughout the county secure nine-tenths of their films from these makers it is obvious that the effect of this censorship will be widespread. It is probable, therefore, that the early flood of vulgar and indecent or demoralizing pictures will be stayed. There are already many signs of an intelligent effort to use the moving picture for educational

purposes, along with the amusement and diversion for which it is still chiefly intended.

In the field of vaudeville and the general stage there is still much to be done before the evil effects on the children who attend can be done away. While the slow process of refining this form of public amusement is going on it becomes of the utmost importance that parents and guardians of young children should be self-appointed censors. They should learn that mental and moral contagion are far more fatal than physical contagion. If they do not know this they should be compelled to hear it proclaimed. The public is bound to learn in these days about the "white plague" which destroys the lungs. Why should it not be informed of this "yellow plague" which destroys the mind and spirit? There are no greater vested interests in theatres to antagonize than there are in tenement houses. The latter have been successfully braved: why not the former?

Meanwhile the proper form of public dramatic amusement for children must be devised and provided. The "Children's Theatre" in New York is a most worthy contribution. Its limitations lie in its failure to pay for more than one-third of its cost and in its appeal, for the most part, to children of one race.

The training of the dramatic instinct may properly be a part of the educational system. Natural dancing and play easily take dramatic form. There are a number of fairy tales yet to be reproduced by and for children. Every stirring historical scene can be represented in pageantry. Symbolism may well play a larger part on the children's stage. Games can be made both picturesque and dramatic.

There is little value for the child of fourteen or under in the public stage as it is to-day. What the commercial theatre manager can and will do, governed as he is by the box office receipts, gives no great encouragement. But every parent and every teacher has here an important constructive problem. It will be a step forward when there is a widespread effort to solve it.

THE WORK OF THE JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION[1]

By CHARLES T. WALKER, General Secretary of the Philadelphia Juvenile Protective Association

As we come to this point in the Conference we are brought into close range with the work of the Juvenile Court and the consideration of going one better in the treatment of delinquent, dependent, neglected, and so-called, incorrigible children.

The children who come under the above classifications deviate from the normal line of development in the moral, physical or mental sphere, and naturally are in need of some treatment to make them useful members of society.

There has always been a concern as to the treatment of children needing this consideration, and the past century has been marked with many advances which are most humane and scientific; a number of which are under consideration at these conferences.

We are now getting more scientific and giving the diagnosis the first place in the treatment of all children whether they be mentally, morally or physically ill. Each child is a problem to be dealt with and examined individually by a social physician equipped with sufficient knowledge of child nature to make a careful and proper diagnosis tending to a permanent cure. In matters where the social physician cannot render the proper treatment, it is the specialist who is to be consulted. This specialist might be the teacher, doctor, pastor, social worker or any other person interested in a special line of treatment or one able to give proper and needed advice.

It is this point of view in the treatment of children socially ill that has brought forth the Juvenile Court for the treatment of delinquent, dependent, neglected, and incorrigible children under the chronological age of sixteen. (I emphasize *chronological*, because, in working with this type of child, we are in constant touch with children at eighteen who are in great need of the treatment they would receive under the Juvenile Court laws;—and is there any period in a child's life needing more careful attention than that period between sixteen and eighteen?)

Prior to the passage of Juvenile Court laws, children, in most

[1]An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

states, were treated as adult criminals. If they violated the law they were placed in the cell at the station house or lock-up until brought before a justice of the peace or magistrate for a preliminary hearing. When a prima-facie case was made out, the justice or magistrate would release the child on bail or commit him to the county prison with other criminals to await the action of the grand jury. In cases where a true bill was found he was brought before judge and jury for trial, with a prosecuting attorney to press the case for a conviction. When a child was brought into the court room he was arraigned, heard the bill of indictment read, and entered his plea of guilty or not guilty. After the plea or conviction he was given a sentence—the entire procedure parallel in events with that of the burglar who was tried immediately before him or the thief after him, and yet we called it justice. In the event of a child being a pauper (neglected or dependent as we now call it) he was sent to an almshouse or asylum

While this system was consistent with the technique of the law, we cannot help but feel that it was inadequate, being neither scientific, humane, nor practical. It makes one shudder to think of the evils which existed under this system. These poor little children in the greatest need of nurture and help were just crying for the State to express its Fatherhood in some form fitting to an enlightened and Christian nation.

Thanks to the good women of this land, who heard the cry of these children, we have had an awakening by the State to a more deep realization of its Fatherhood which is expressed by the presence of the Juvenile Court in the various Commonwealths.

When interpreting the Juvenile Court we must depart from the old ideas which so generally prevail and remember that the juvenile Court not only deals with the erring children but also with those who are unfortunate or have careless and cruel parents. The ideal, and it is usually so real, can be realized when we see the State, when it is needed, fulfilling the functions of a normal, dear, good, big father, such as many of us have been blessed with.

When the State expresses its fatherhood in this way, the children are usually classifieded as delinquent, dependent, neglected and incorrigible. A delinquent child is one who violates some law of the Commonwealth and therefore becomes amenable to the law. It is under this classification that we might find the child of criminal tendencies, but the juvenile delinquent is more frequently the boy of average grade who has made a slip and has been fortunate enough to get caught by the police, which is the first step toward redemption. It is just at this point we need the socialized policemen, and in justice to the hundreds of good

policemen in our cities is it not true that we have given too little attention to the good things they do and especially in connection with their humane and moralizing efforts in dealing with children. A tactful policeman can often save a child from being graded "delinquent" on a court docket even if the child has violated a law of the Commonwealth, as the child is generally more neglected than delinquent. However, the vision of the crime rises above the neglect.

In the trial of a delinquent child most states fortunately do not provide for an indictment, but hold as the slogan "Consider what is best in the interests of the child and of the Commonwealth."

As most delinquents are misguided or weak the providing of probation officers under the law brings us to the very force of the Juvenile Court work. It is not upon the trial judge who makes the decree that the success of the Juvenile Court rests, but upon the efficiency of the probation system. The Juvenile Court Judge, whether he sits one year, one month or permanently as the case may be in the different states, cannot make good citizens from delinquents or reduce delinquency unless he be supported by an adequate and efficient staff of probation officers. As the probation officer must make the investigation of the environment, physical and mental capabilities, etc., prior to the hearing of the child before the Juvenile Court, the Judge almost invariably acts upon the diagnosis of the probation officer. Thus the position is at once semi-judiciary, and as the supervision of the child after the hearing will come under the probation officer we can appreciate the importance of good men and women called to work in strengthening and guiding these precious little human plants. True all children are not placed on probation, but it is also true that most children are so placed upon the first violation of the law. It is interesting and encouraging to study the results of successful probation as it is contained in the reports of Probation Commissions and Juvenile Courts or by what one has experienced in his or her own work. It is a practical application toward the cure of juvenile delinquents and a positive saving to the public treasury.

In cases where the probation is not successful or where there is little hope for a successful probation period, the delinquent is placed in a school for training juvenile delinquents, and not in a penal institution. The Juvenile Court and probation system is curing delinquents but not reducing juvenile delinquency. It is in the treatment of the dependent and neglected child that we see the State perform the functions of the great protector.

A dependent child is one dependent upon the public for sup-

port while a neglected child is one not receiving proper parental care and supervision.

In dealing with children under this classification the dependent child must generally be cared for by some child caring agency, preferably in the family boarding home under the supervision of the State with a visitor to not more than each one hundred and fifty children. The visitor should keep careful and complete record of the child's development while in the foster home.

In the matter of the neglected child we are dealing with the child not receiving proper parental care or supervision. This child is frequently in a worse plight than the dependent child because of its cruel or careless parents. In dealing with this child probation is frequently successful and if the parents are not too far gone the probation officer can do much to reconstruct the home through the affection for the children. Though when a case should be taken through the courts and the best interests of the State demand that the home should be broken up, there is need of a fearlessness in proceeding with such a course. It is poor work that will lose the children in trying to redeem near irredeemable parents. It is the Juvenile Court that places such children under the sheltering arms of the State temporarily or permanently in order that they may secure the rights of childhood which have been so sadly neglected.

A child is incorrigible under the laws of my own State when he is beyond the control of his parents and the proceedings may be only started by the parent or guardian.

Incorrigible is a term like the child it is applied to, very hard to define. These incorrigible children are more frequently the children of incorrigible parents who most need the application of court discipline. We feel we know what an incorrigible child is; but have we anything anywhere by which we could classify these incorrigible children? They seem to be a conglomeration of everything we think of as bad, but a close knowledge reveals the fact that they are in need of a little tactful treatment and they blossom as a rose.

The probation officers can frequently create this new and better understanding between parent and child, and results are indeed gratifying to the worker.

We have now considered the Juvenile Court in its treatment of these children but find it to be far from a cure all. At the very root we have the grave and underlying causes,—above all the non-functionary home, where the normal functions of home life rarely exist. Here a child must eke out its existence amid crowded, squalid surroundings, often with irritable, misunderstanding or incompetent parents who make life well-nigh unbearable. It is such a home that contributes to

the list of runaways we find sleeping over the grates on winter nights in the larger cities. It is this type of home that generates the moral and physical insensibility which is so characteristic of the adult criminal. If dependency does not exist in the present generation it is likely to exist in the next generation. Such homes contribute to the existence of the slum, which is the very hot bed of the juvenile ills we are now considering. With our present immigration we keep on piling them into the limited areas, and how can we diminish this dependency and delinquency permitting such things to continue.

In these same homes we find the development of the habitual truant. Truancy develops from a form of neglect to a condition of delinquency, and with these two evils coupled together, it does not take long to realize that we have lost the child. Truancy is the very beginning of the worst forms of delinquency and should be gripped at the very outset.

It is the home, the inadequate routine curricula and the inefficient departments of compulsory education that are creating and maintaining the host of habitual truants. The dignity of the work of truant officers must be raised and the number greatly increased to cope with this shameful condition in our American life, which is so grave an evil in children's work. In many places the habitual truant is never handled until he comes under the arms of the court, when the boy at fifteen years can barely do the school work of a child at seven. In every centre of population affected by truancy there should be scout truant officers to seek every nook and corner that might produce a truant child.

Leaving these social causes effecting the moral, physical and intellectual welfare of the child we turn to a few economic and commercial causes.

Railroads are infested by children gathering coal. From picking it on the ground they proceed to climb on the cars and throw it off, first from the standing cars, then from those in motion. Economic conditions in homes from which many of these children come tends to dull the moral sense and children are forced to this practice by parents, despite the strenuous efforts of the railroad police. From the coal they may be found breaking seals on freight cars and removing merchandise, then when large enough they start to remove the brass journals from over the axles of the cars, thus endangering the lives of many people. From the railroad they find the junk shop where they can dispose of the brass journal which has been broken into an unrecognizable mass, sometimes at the suggestion of the junk dealer, so that he might be protected at the bar of the court on the ground that he did not recognize the brass as that from a journal box. The junk dealer is one of the most prevalent of

individual causes of juvenile erring. He seems to be lacking of conscience in his dealings with children and constantly needs watching. Pawnbrokers seem to be just as conscienceless in cities where they are not prohibited from accepting articles from children by law. Stolen goods which cannot be disposed of in the junk shop may be pawned in the pawn shop. Thus with the department stores offering their temptations on the unprotected tables covered with trinkets, the low pool rooms, gambling joints, cigarette dealers and burlesque shows we cover phases of our social life which are undermining the work being done for the welfare of the children in great cities.

Non-employment and non-vocational employment are matters entering into the delinquency and dependency of children. We can often prevent these, by not only helping a child find a job, but by helping in the more vital subject of directing towards the finding of a vocation and dignifying labor in every way we can. The vocation can be just as true in the humble positions as in the exalted professions which are now well crowded.

Mental and physical defects, disease, deformations and bad heredity all contribute to delinquency and dependency.

We have now considered the presence of the Juvenile Court in our midst and some causes which lead to it. Let us now turn to a consideration of going "one better"—the getting at the root causes.

It is in great metropolitan centres that we find the existence of most of these causes. A host of the population are conscienceless in many matters affecting children, while ignorance, fear or incompetence mark the administration of the parental care and control. With such conditions there has come a spontaneous demand for a civic and social conscience to stand "*in loco parentis.*" The Juvenile Protective Association takes this stand, enters the portions of the city which needs it most and stands fearlessly for the inalienable rights of chlldhood. It prosecutes those who violate the laws affecting child life, seeks out and studies conditions detrimental to the normal development of childhood, provides for the recreation of children and holds itself as near the ideal of a normal parent as is possible for an outside agency. The work need not be accomplished from a large and imposing building, but by agents in instant touch with conditions within the district, possessing a knowledge of all laws in the Commonwealth which affect children and imbued with a social spirit that detects anything tending to divert the child from a true course

Thus I leave this paper for the discussion in the firm hope that we shall be privileged to have some new and enlightened ideas to help the battle for these little children.

NOTES ON TUBERCULOSIS IN SCHOOL CHILDREN[1]

By F. L. Wachenheim, M. D., New York City

The subject of tuberculosis in childhood is so vast that I deem it well-advised to limit myself to the above title of notes on tuberculosis in school children. To cover the subject thoroughly would call for a treatise instead of a twenty-minute paper which admits of only a bare outline of what has been and remains to be done; even so, you will, no doubt, note many omissions and some rather sweeping generalizations; from the nature of the case, these defects are simply unavoidable.

I must begin with a sketch of the forms of tuberculosis encountered between the ages of five and fifteen years, because the different series of cases call for very different management, some being of relatively benign type, others responding variously to the several popular methods of treatment. In the first place, there are those children commonly called scrofulous, of whom many are certainly not tuberculous, whereas the remainder are largely affected with the bovine as opposed to the human type of tuberculosis. Whenever we can definitely ascertain that the child in question is not suffering from the latter form of infection, we are warranted in giving a decidedly favorable prognosis. Mild cases of this group may often be treated along the lines suitable to sub-normal children; it is doubtful if bovine tuberculosis is directly fatal in the human subject, as there is no unquestionable case of the kind on record. On the other hand, the suggestion of Raw that it may immunize the patient against human tuberculosis is interesting, as based to some extent on animal experiment.

Such cases of glandular tuberculosis (scrofulosis) as are likely, from the severity of the symptoms, to be of the human type, may, for purposes of treatment, be grouped with the children suffering from what may be briefly designated as surgical tuberculosis. This is the type especially characteristic of the school age, affecting the bony structures, usually the spine and the hip, not rarely the knee and other joints.

[1]An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

Two features may be noted in this group: first, it forms one of the chief fields for orthopædic treatment; secondly, these cases are, broadly speaking, not infectious, a circumstance of some importance in regard to general management.

Tuberculosis of the lungs is uncommon in early school life, but becomes quite frequent toward puberty; nevertheless, it does not, for our purposes, constitute so large a problem as the second group mentioned above. These older children, who suffer from the adult type of tuberculosis, may be treated exactly like adults; some of the sanatoria have divisions for children where the regular régime of fresh air, good food, and carefully regulated exercise is carried out, the ultimate results differing little from those obtained in older subjects.

We now come to the important question of diagnosis, often a matter of some difficulty, especially when we consider that the cases difficult to diagnosticate are the very ones most likely to be benefited or cured, if taken in hand early. The question here stated is so purely medical that I do not care to enter into details; I mention it merely to check any false confidence in the new tuberculin tests. The injection and conjunctival tests are fairly trustworthy, but not altogether harmless; they denote active tuberculosis, but give little indication of the severity of the case tested. The opsonin test has likewise failed in determining the latter important point, though great hopes were cherished on its announcement: it merely indicates the resisting power of the individual, and that from one aspect only. The vaccine test is too delicate for our purpose, at least in older children; it responds to an infection that has occurred in the past and may have run its course; the fact that it fails to respond to the very worst cases is relatively unimportant, as these are readily diagnosticated otherwise, and are, besides, practically incurable. I have mentioned the above points merely to emphasize the fact, now being gradually realized, that the new tests are not unequivocal, but merely useful aids to our older diagnostic methods.

Before discussing the management of tuberculous children, it is fitting to devote some attention to the even more important subject of prevention. Within the last few years the energies of both physicians and the public have rightly been bent in this direction, as it unquestionably offers more promise of social betterment than the consideration of the cure of individuals already diseased. The prophylaxis of tuberculosis is now known to concern childhood in particular, since the researches of Behring, corroborated by many others, seem to point to early life as the epoch par excellence of infection with the tubercle bacillus. Prevention may be sought in

two directions, those respectively of personal and public hygiene.

The subject of the personal prophylaxis of tuberculosis in children was treated by me somewhat fully before the International Congress on Tuberculosis last autumn; I shall therefore content myself with a bare outline of the points then enumerated. We should endeavor to promote the child's general nutrition by attending to its digestive apparatus, by discouraging vicious habits of eating, by the judicious enforcement of exercise, and by moderate methods of hardening. These last need not be administered so cautiously at the school age as in early childhood, nevertheless, we shall do well to guard against foolish extremes, especially in ill-nourished and otherwise subnormal children. Of course, the unstinted use of fresh air comes foremost in the prevention of tuberculosis; it forms the basis of our most successful curative methods, and therefore cannot fail to be our most efficient prophylactic; to secure it a change of climate will sometimes be necessary, but that of New England and eastern New York is in every way sufficiently salubrious, save on the coast of eastern New England in early spring, and in the lowlands south of Boston and Albany in July and August. Any one who has spent a full year in northwestern Europe will thenceforth cease to decry our northeastern climate; its wealth of sunshine is alone sufficient to atone for the minor deficiencies which are by no means peculiar to it. The gloomy and stormy winter of the Lake Region and the sultry summer of our low-lying southerly districts are, of course, detrimental and to be avoided when possible.

In recent years there has been some discussion as to the advisability of the removal of enlarged tonsils and adenoid hypertrophies as a preventive measure. In this direction there has probably been a good deal of exaggeration. While it is of course proper to remove diseased tissues that may become a source of infection, still, only a small proportion of these growths has, upon examination, turned out to be tuberculous, while, on the other hand, these glandular structures are known to act as a sort of germ filter, so that, on the whole, it is better to consider such enlargements on their own merits as eventual obstructions, and disregard them from the present point of view.

The matters of public hygiene, that here concern us, are chiefly those of milk supply and tenement regulation. Of these, the former has been threshed out thoroughly, and the extreme views of a few years ago are being materially modified. Contamination of milk with the germ of human tuberculosis is merely a possible incident attending general uncleanli-

ness, which should be combated most energetically for reasons even more fundamental and far-reaching than the one forming the scope of this paper. The danger from bovine tuberculosis is relatively less serious; it may be regarded as fairly well settled by the highest authorities that the destruction of tuberculous cattle is not an absolute necessity; their isolation and the compulsory pasteurization of the milk they supply, as advocated by Bang, would appear to be a sufficient precaution.

More important and, in the opinion of many besides myself, the pith of the entire problem of tuberculosis, is the question of tenement improvement. Whereas it is quite true that tuberculosis was even more frequent in this country before tenement houses came into existence than now, the fact remains that they at present constitute the main obstacle in our fight against the white plague. I know of nothing more discouraging than the perennial siege of our legislatures by those who desire, for their own profit, a relaxation of our none too stringent tenement laws. Meanwhile, we may note, with some shame, let us hope, that the great European cities are progressing actively and successfully in the task of wiping out their slums; American cities have so far attacked this problem in but a feeble and half-hearted way, when they have given it any attention at all.

Closely connected with the preceding is the question of child labor, where, I am happy to say, matters are considerably better. Such states as Massachusetts and New York have a fairly adequate body of law on this subject, whereas some of our southern states are still engaged in killing off their children with labor laws that are absolutely barbarous. I am afraid that the labor unions are more to be thanked for our relatively enlightened child labor legislation than are the communal workers, praiseworthy as have been their efforts. The mediæval state of affairs in the South is assuredly largely due to the unorganized condition of the adult laborers, who seem to inspire the average legislator with little respect, when they appeal as individuals.

I may now pass on to the main body of our subject, the management of school children who are manifestly tuberculous. As an introduction I may express my regret that healthy children cannot be subjected to a regimen similar to the one I shall outline below for those already diseased; much excellent preventive work would thereby be accomplished. Unfortunately, our modern civilization, with its ever increasing demand for mental concentration and advanced study, compels us to keep our children indoors during the best part of the day for some ten months of the year, and the growing

interest in vacation schools bids fair to include the midsummer months besides. Since, furthermore, our cities in no case supply adequate playgrounds for the children when not at work in school, we can offer the rising generation no compensation whatever for the excessive proportion of indoor life now required for study. Here we observe a condition calling for immediate and radical reform.

Tuberculous children may conveniently be grouped in two classes: first, the practically non-infectious cases of scrofulosis, bovine tuberculosis (essentially the glandular cases), and bone tuberculosis; secondly, those whose lungs are affected, who expectorate, and are therefore a serious menace to the healthy members of the community. It is fortunate that these two groups require somewhat different management; this enables us to separate them, with obvious advantage to themselves and others. I may be pardoned if I preface the giving of details with a few remarks which should be unnecessary, but are not as yet superfluous in our relatively unenlightened state.

Our present facilities for the segregation of tuberculous children are wofully inadequate; our deficiencies are largely due to ignorance. Thus, I was requested by the school board of a considerable Southern city to inform them whether tuberculous children might receive their education in the general schools, or, if separation were preferable, how it should be carried out. My communication as to the proper way of disposing of this question was apparently regarded with little favor, as it obtained no acknowledgment; probably it was too troublesome and expensive. Yet the fact remains that the accommodation of tuberculous children in the general classes is highly reprehensible from every point of view. The affected children should be withdrawn from city life, and removed to country sanatoria, where instruction may be readily imparted, according to the varying condition of the children, preferably by teachers who require treatment for similar reasons. This will enable us to give tuberculous children both treatment and proper schooling, and supply to teachers affected with quiescent tuberculosis both fresh air and the means of earning a livelihood. It seems to me to redound little to our credit that our larger centres of population have not even begun to take up this matter earnestly. Europe is at present plentifully supplied with sanatoria for these children, whereas our country is still hardly beyond the stage of discussing the subject.

Children who are suffering from glandular or bone tuberculosis have been regularly found to do best at the seashore. Our northeastern coasts are far better adapted to this purpose than

those of northwestern Europe, because of the abundance of sunshine. I would, however, indicate a preference for the south New England coast, from Buzzard's Bay westward, as being less exposed to the east winds of spring, though the coast of northern New England is to be preferred in mid-summer, as being cooler. Long Island and New Jersey are very bracing, but rarely intensely cold, from October to May; they are somewhat enervating during the summer months, and thus inferior to more northerly localities. Very few sanatoria are as yet available in these regions, but the results achieved are most encouraging, and should invite a more extensive trial.

Children with pulmonary tuberculosis do better at inland resorts, where a wide range of location and climate is available in New York and New England. The excessive severity and length of the winter north of the 43rd parallel offers a slight but not absolute objection to our northern mountains; the southern hill country of New York and New England, preferably at elevations of one to two thousand feet, is admirably adapted to our purpose; low-lying situations are too hot in summer, not proportionately milder in winter, and sometimes malarious in the former season. Our first choice for the location of sanatoria for tuberculous children would be the Berkshire and Litchfield Hills and the Catskill and Shawangunk Mountains.

School work should be limited to children who have, for some weeks at least, been free from fever and gaining in weight; short sessions alone are permissible, the afternoon being left free for play or, when possible, exercise out of doors. The classes should be taught, as far as possible, on the veranda or in tents, to avoid the deleterious influence of a crowded schoolroom. It is needless to dwell more fully on the need of adapting the amount of work to the strength and condition of the individual child. This matter, neglected in most of our public schools, and impossible of achievement with large classes, is exceedingly important in the cases here under consideration. To carry it out, the formation of very small classes, with the resulting opportunity of giving attention to individual children, is quite essential.

Finally, it would be a great error not to call attention to the need for a prolonged period of after-treatment, following an apparent cure. This is particularly important in pulmonary tuberculosis, where a probationary period of at least a year should follow the diagnosis of a cure. Children are apt to suffer from rather severe types of tuberculosis of the lungs, with a marked tendency to relapse; we cannot handle them too carefully even when recovery seems to have been attained,

and a return to the city tenements is only too often followed by recurrence, even when every precaution has been taken. In the case of glandular or bone tuberculosis, apparent cures are less deceptive, probably because accurate diagnosis of the patient's condition is much easier. These children may often return home a few months after they appear to have recovered. It will be seen that my recommendations seem extreme, and differ widely from the procedure in vogue at the sanatoria; I am convinced that some of the disrepute that these institutions are acquiring among careful observers is to be attributed to the premature discharge of patients. If we bear in mind that an "improved" case is merely one who is not quite so ill as before, we shall be guarded against issuing too optimistic statements as to the efficacy of sanatorium treatment and too early discharge of our patients. The avoidance of both these errors will, in the long run, redound to the greater credit of our institutions, and counteract the disappointment in the results achieved therein, which may be partly merited under the existent rules and methods, but is not by any means inherent in this plan of treatment. The combined school and sanatorium is the ideal institution for the management of tuberculosis in school children, and our endeavors must aim in the direction of supplying it in a degree adequate to the population afflicted.

PRACTICAL EUGENICS[1]

By JOHN FRANKLIN BOBBITT, PH. D., Clark University

If a child is well-born, if he springs from sound, sane stock, if he possesses high endowment potential in the germ, then the problem of his unfoldment is well-nigh solved long before it is presented. Such a child is easily protected from adverse influences; and he is delicately and abundantly responsive to the positive influences of education.

But if, on the other hand, the child is marred in the original making, if he springs from a worm-eaten stock, if the foundation plan of his being is distorted and confused in heredity before his unfoldment begins, then the problem of healthy normal development is rendered insoluble before it is presented. Such a child is difficult to protect against adverse influences, and he remains to the end stupidly unresponsive to the delicate growth factors of education.

If we could choose the parents of the next generation, if the choice could be made with such wisdom and received with such good-will that only children of sound, sane parentage should be born, then our most difficult problems of child-training would be solved, most of the evils that pursue humanity would be banished, and the race raised to higher altitudes in its journey toward the kingdom of the Over-man. Luther Burbank, in his garden, finds that by carefully selecting the parentage of his plants for a few generations he can transform them into almost anything that he wills. Thus he takes scraggy worthless stocks, and by carefully selecting the parentage, out of them brings new and wondrous creations, both useful and beautiful.

Since man became man he has always looked forward to an ideal future state on earth, a Eutopia, a millenium, a City of the Sun, a Platonic Republic, where all men should be good and wise and strong. And yet wherever man has builded a civilization in his striving to realize his ideal state, in Egypt, or Greece, or Carthage, or Rome, invariably he has met with defeat. Without exception his state crumbles and falls. There has *always* been some invisible undermining influence, which he failed to see and to prevent.

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[1]An Address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

With the rise of the science of biology, we have discovered the secret of their decline, and have discovered the formula for counteracting it in our own case. The undermining influences were at bottom biological in their case; and the formula for counteracting them in our case must likewise be biological. The formula is the simple one used by Luther Burbank in his superb creations; for all life grows on a single stem. As is the parentage so is the next generation. If the next generation is to be higher than this, its average parentage must be higher than our average. This law is fundamental, ineluctable, not to be vetoed or evaded. We may prefer to shut our eyes to the law because of its difficulty of application; we may prefer to trust to an assumed plasticity because it appears more docile to our wish; we may find it more comfortable to fall back upon the faith that good intentions cannot go wrong. These things are more pleasant, if pleasantness is our aim. But if improvement of the human stock is our aim, biological law must be followed regardless of personal wish.

It is easy to see the problem of Eugenics, the newly-arising science which seeks to improve the inborn qualities of our race; it is easy to see the practical advantages to result from an application of its principles; but it is not at all easy to see how it is to be done.

Until recently we have supposed that the differences in hereditary endowment were not great, and that they were but small factors in determining the different destinies of men. And we have assumed a degree of plasticity sufficient to overcome differences of native endowment. Under the circumstances it is perfectly natural that men should have chosen what seems the easier means of levelling up humanity through their plasticity, rather than of levelling up their heredity. It is entirely natural, therefore, that fifty-three papers and addresses in this conference should deal with influences that affect individual plasticity, and only two or three relate directly to human heredity.

At present our doctrines of heredity are not as they were. We are coming to see that heredity is dominant in the characters of men. Human plasticity is not so great as has been assumed. A child cannot be moulded to our will. The design laid in heredity is the only one that can be worked out in actuality. The actual is only a realized copy of the potential. It is true the potential is drawn in rather broad lines thus permitting the necessary degree of adaptation; to this extent the individual is plastic. But recent statistics of heredity show that the possible deviation is not great, except

downward in the direction of breaking and marring. The actual may fall far below the possible but cannot transcend it.

If the parentage of the coming generation in our country is on an average poorer than our present average, then the average endowment of the coming infant-harvest will be below that of the present. To educators and philanthropists this means a poorer raw material on which to work and an increase of the educational difficulties which are at present sufficiently bewildering.

It is not possible in our limited space to present certain necessary statistics. But from general observation we know that families of the better classes are smaller than formerly. Especially is this true among the well-to-do; the professional, the scholarly classes. College graduates of to-day average considerably less than two children per man whereas in the laboring population the average is twice as great. Not half of college women graduates marry; the average fecundity is less than one child per graduate, as against a fecundity three times as great among the women of the laboring classes. These are well-known facts, though their full significance is not generally realized. Those at the top, furnishing a small portion of the parentage, are on the whole the most highly endowed, physically, mentally, and morally. Those of the lower social strata, furnishing the major portion of the parentage, are the lesser endowed, which accounts for their being at the bottom.

The more highly endowed classes furnish a far smaller proportion of the parentage than is furnished by the stupid, unambitious, poorly-endowed strata at the bottom. Ability is dying out at the top simply because it is not being born. There is a growing proletariatization of our high race, simply because the proletariat furnishes the major portion of the parentage. As is the parentage, so is the next generation.

On the other hand many influences are at work to protect the weaker and poorer social stocks and to enable them to have larger families than in past ages. At the present time our medicine, hygiene, and public sanitation keep alive multitudes of weaklings that formerly were weeded out by hard conditions. Thus to-day we save weak lungs, weak muscles, weak eyes and ears, weak minds and weak wills, weakness in general, and weakness in every particular, and permit it to reproduce itself in heredity, further corrupting the next generation. Our schools and our charities supply crutches to the weak in mind and in morals, nursing them and cherishing them in every possible way, helping them to economic independence, to family life, and thus further to corrupt the streams of heredity which all admit are at present sufficiently turbid.

Thus we see two sinister processes at work: the upper and better strata of society are continually dying away; and poorer ones are being added on at the bottom. There is a continual drying up of the highest, purest tributaries to the stream of heredity, and a rising flood in the muddy, undesirable streams.

Now let us draw back from these present day considerations, and look for an instant at the whole process from such a distance as to see our problem in a wide historical perspective.

During man's prehistoric age, when by bloody struggle he was acquiring the qualities that have raised him so high above the brute, the two processes described above did not exist in any great degree. Continual war meant continual thinning of the ranks. The continued existence of the tribe demanded new recruits, large fecundity. These sprang most numerously from the stronger more virile strains, since these alone under the savage conditions could found homes, protect, and provide. There was some cutting off at the top even under these conditions. The most ambitious, the most pugnacious, were the ones most engaged in the whirlwinds of battle, the ones most neglectful of family life, the ones soonest to fall in the fray before they had colored the stream of heredity. But on the whole it was the best and strongest that brought the most new recruits to adulthood. The cutting off at the top was not great.

On the other hand, the fury of the struggle kept the race well-weeded at the bottom. And the children of weak parentage, even when brought to maturity under the protection of stronger arms, were naturally first to fall in the struggle before they could mingle their weakness with the currents of heredity.

Thus in primal days was the blood of the race kept high and pure, like mountain streams. One may not admire the hard conditions of the savage life of our German forefathers in their Teuton forests; but one must admit the high purity of their blood, their high average sanity, soundness and strength. They were a well-born, well-weeded race.

In the latter Middle Ages we may call them semi-civilized. Humanity had become differentiated into nobility, freemen, and serfs. The distinctions were ostensibly social, but never could have come into being had not men possessed different degrees of native ability. The middle class of freemen were lineally descended from the original savage stock. The best and strongest had specialized themselves upward out of this matrix into the nobility. The weakest had gravitated downward to form the new and formerly non-existent class of serfs and slaves.

In this differentiation we see the mischief beginning. The upper stratum was not only socially but in original blood the best of the race. And yet it is a well-known fact, attested by an abundance of statistical proof, that the aristocracy continually dies out at the top, and continually requires recruits from the middle class below. It was the best of the middle class that was taken up into the aristocracy and pushed on toward extinction in its turn. Thus the upper aristocracy acted like a selective social sponge that continually sucked up the finest of the middle class, and evaporated it off, leaving the turbid undesirable elements. The cutting off of the best endowed at the top was thus a process that reached down to the very bottom of society. For where ability arose even among the serfs it was sucked up into the middle class, and if great enough finally on to the upper class, on its way toward ultimate extinction.

On the other hand, the growing civilization tended to protect the new class of serfs and slaves. Attempts were everywhere made to confine war to the warrior classes, and to protect as much as possble the peaceful pursuits of husbandry, manufactures, and commerce. Thus classes of weaklings that never could have survived in the former age, were preserved and permitted to mingle their blood in the common current to the pollution of the whole.

Thus it appears how simple social differentiation like that of the Middle Ages tended to drain off the purest and best strains of the race and to supply the resulting deficit by adding on weaker, poorer strains at the bottom. The only possible result was some degree of racial deterioration.

But there was a lower limit to the process below which it could not go. Though conditions were easier than in primitive days, yet they were still hard. Although attempts were made to protect non-combatants, yet war fell heavy upon all classes. And further, humanity lived mainly upon the labor of men's hands. They had not yet learned to draw upon Nature's energy as supplied by coal, and wind, and water, and applied by labor-saving machines. Medicine and hygiene had not been developed, so that the race was not well-protected from those ravages of disease that fall especially heavy upon the weak. The race was kept pretty well weeded, though not so thoroughly as in savage times.

It appears that the middle class was the one most able and most willing to bring large families to maturity. The upper class would not, the lower could not. We see here regression in the quality of the parentage. In primitive days it was the best and strongest. In the semi-civilized Middle Ages it had fallen to the middle class. And the quality of the parentage

determines the quality of the next generation. The middle class was good but not so good as the best.

Now coming down to our own day, we find that our race has made enormous further strides in the same direction. Society is much further differentiated. Instead of one aristocracy of social position, we have now a dozen aristocracies. There is the aristocracy of birth, that of wealth, the many aristocracies of learning, and art, and religion. The middle class, also, has become stratified into upper, middle, and lower. And the sheltered class at the bottom reaches down now several grades lower than during the semi-savage middle ages.

Instead of the one aristocracy slowly draining off one kind of ability, there are now the many aristocracies draining off all kinds of high ability. And not only is this true of the top stratum, but the cutting-off process has begun its sinister ravages in the middle classes. Celibacy is more common in the middle classes than formerly, families are much smaller, and still rapidly dwindling.

Where knowledge increases and living conditions grow easier, families always grow smaller. Our education, our books and periodicals, and the general social ferment of to-day have set men's minds on fire; and the utilization of nature's energies in industry have freed his hands, even down deep into the middle classes. This has removed the chief distinction between aristocracy and middle class; in other words, upon our middle classes have been conferred the privileges and immunities formerly possessed only by the upper class. Thus there arise in the middle class the same qualities, the same outlook, ambitions, desires, and methods of attaining their desires, even to the necessary infecundity which is an indispensable condition to success in social ambition. Thus the cutting off of the fairest strains of our imperial race is carried deeper and deeper down into our society. And the best are sucked up out of the lower ranks with constantly increasing rapidity.

On the other hand our present surplus of wealth, our economic and geographical freedom, and the increase of our scientific knowledge have thrown barriers of protection about our race, superior to anything even dreamed of in former ages. The result has been the survival of grades of weaklings, mental, physical, and moral, that in former ages never could have survived. This protection has brought weeding to an end. We even protect and cherish the weeds with greater solicitude than the fruitful plants. All statistics show that we pay far more per individual to raise up the defective, the sub-normal, the diseased, the morally incapable, than we

pay to bring up our healthy children. It is harder to raise fruit from weeds, we say, and therefore must we pay more.

For example, let two children be born of poor parentage in the slum environment of our cities, one of them deaf, dumb, and stupid, the other sound, active, and intelligent. Upon the defective we lavish all our care, and when his school-days are over, he is solicitously helped to a position of economic independence, where he can bring up a family endowed with his defects. The sound child, however, born in the same environment, we pass by, and let him get on as he can. If he bears fruit, well; if not, well also. It is the weeds that get special protection. Let one imagine the result if Luther Burbank cherished the weeds of his garden with a more tender solicitude than he bestows upon his fruitful plants.

This cutting off at the top of the best and the adding on at the bottom of the worst and poorest, is at present exhausting the high qualities of our race with a rapidity never before equaled in the history of the world. Whereas the most numerous reproduction during the middle ages was in the social middle class, it has now fallen in our most civilized centers into the proletariat. There is a growing proletariatization of our high race, for the simple reason that here it finds its most numerous parentage. As the seed, so the harvest.

There is of course a lower limit below which the race cannot sink. But there is little comfort in thinking that we must sink a good deal lower yet. Eugenics has set for its practical task the staying of these double and sinister ravages, so as to hold the race on its present high level of inborn endowment, and if possible to lift it to a higher one.

The evils being double, the problem is double. One problem is how to persuade the strong and capable men and women at the top of our society, with brain on fire, to give up their ambitions, their pleasures, and their love of ease; and seriously and consistently for long generations to undertake the parentage and the nurture of more numerous bearers of their heredity. The second problem is to prevent the weaklings at the bottom from mingling their weakness in the human currents. Each problem seeks a way to reverse nature. Each is a problem in the dynamics of social psychology,—a science that is yet in embryo. It is yet in no shape even to name the social forces of which it treats, much less to measure and weigh their stresses and strains with accuracy sufficient to prescribe the requisite social dynamics demanded by eugenics. Eugenics is clear as to its two main problems; but it has no solution to either one of them, and cannot hope for any complete solution until biology, psychology, and sociology are more fully developed.

A few things of minor importance can be done, and are being done at present in increasing degree. These make no pretense to being solutions, but only the first practical contributions to a solution. Although small in their effects as compared with the forces to be combated, they constitute the entering wedge of what may in time grow to be sufficiently powerful. And in any case the results obtained are in themselves eminently worth while. We have space here to enumerate only a few of them.

Let us notice first those that deal with the repression of the unfit.

1. Marriage laws of all states impose mild restrictions upon the marriage of the graver classes of defectives. A recent law of the state of Washington is the most searching that has come to my notice. It requires a medical certificate on the part of both contracting parties, given by a qualified physician after due examination, certifying that they are sound and well in both body and mind, and free from serious taints in their heredity. No marriage license can be granted, nor ceremony performed without the production of such certificates. Severe penalties are imposed upon both civil and ecclesiastical officials for violation of this provision. Persons thus shut out from marriage are those affected with tuberculosis, alcoholism, epilepsy, insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness, and other serious diseases and defects which affect posterity. To the extent the law can be enforced it must prove salutary.

Here at the gateway of marriage are most of the barriers being set to prevent the multiplication of defectives. The restrictions are entirely too mild as yet. But they are doubtless as great as are warranted by public opinion. This brings us to a second task.

2. Public opinion must be educated in matters of heredity and in the rise and fall of racial strength. When men come to recognize the gravity of the situation, then and not till then, will they be willing to countenance grave remedies. Practical eugenics must therefore widen and deepen our knowledge of heredity and racial changes, and with its knowledge leaven the lump of public opinion. The latter, crystallizing into law and custom, will raise the barriers against the unfit and thus shut out racial pollution at the bottom. The movement is clearly in that direction. Practical eugenics must hasten it, and give it definite form.

3. Other proposals are the segregation of the unfit; and the sterilization of criminals and defectives of every sort. These proposals are more drastic and more certain in their effects than marriage legislation. They have been adopted in some

slight degree in connection with certain prison and hospital inmates. But in general, public opinion is far behind the needs of the situation, and requires much education.

4. A fourth proposal, which remains only a proposal, is the abolition of public charities, public school systems and all other public agencies which go out of their way to preserve the weak and incapable. Practical eugenics looks upon this proposal as rational only in ages past, and now completely impossible. It would be a return to nature's original method of racial purification; and civilization cannot turn its face backward. Humanity is like a river,— pure at the sources, but turbid below. It cannot turn backward to its sources to attain purity; it must and it will continue forward. Other means must be found not inconsistent with continued advance.

Now turning to the other side of our topic, What can be done to stay the growing infecundity of the better endowed? Here one must confess that one can name little that rightly falls under the term "practical eugenics." It is difficult to find anything consciously done for this purpose, that is having any practical effect. One reads of many proposals, but most of them appear to rest upon a wide innocence of the dynamics of social psychology.

One reads in this connection of placing a heavy tax upon bachelors and maids above a certain age; of offering a bonus to the parents of good blood for each child, the greater the number of children in the family, the larger the bonus; of a socialistic conferring of special social and economic privileges upon the highly endowed so as to give them a better chance; of the granting of certificates of high endowment to the highly endowed after strict personal examination, and the encouragement of marriage of highly endowed with highly endowed; of restricting the salaries of single men to a level much below that of married men for equal work; and many other similar proposals, mostly economic.

But the evil is only partly economic. Those most able are just the ones most unwilling. All things else being equal, the poor and the ignorant are more fecund than the wealthy and the wise. To confer economic ease alone does just the opposite from what is desired.

Mr. Galton proposes a eugenic religion, a wide religion of humanity which looks not merely to individual salvation, but to the ultimate good of all future human kind. Could such a religion be infused into men, there can be no doubt of its tremendous potency for good.

But the difficulties to such a religion appear very great. It requires a degree of altruism never yet possessed by any religion. The roots of so great altruism do not lie in human

nature. And besides, such a religion demands a degree of foresight that looks very far into the future; and human foresight is not great. Only the intellect is far-seeing; and human conduct is controlled ultimately not by intellect but by feeling. Intellect is the pilot; feeling determines the port of sailing, and does the firing. And feeling is not far-seeing. It lives in the present anticipating only the immediate future. For this reason human conduct looks but little forward to the good of future generations.

The weakness of most of the plans presented for the cure of humanity's ills lies just in the false assumption that man is mostly a rational creature; when really his motives can be controlled only by controlling his feelings. And this field of social dynamics is not yet developed.

On that side of eugenics, therefore, which looks to restoring the fecundity of the imperial natures at the top of humanity's current, we are compelled to confess a paucity of knowledge and a dearth of practical contribution.

To conclude: I have here tried to present a simple perspective view of our subject. The difficulties to be met are seen to be gigantic. Our ignorance of means is no less colossal. And the present need of both knowledge and action is urgent and imperative.

I feel that the view here presented is the thoughtful judgment of present-day science, and not that of the alarmist crying calamity. The two undermining influences described are undisputed. Their necessary biological effects are likewise undisputed by students of heredity. All legitimate evidence favors the statement, and none contradicts, that our civilization is digging the pit into which it must fall if these two powerful undermining processes are not checked. If they ever are checked the newly arising science of eugenics, now so feeble and diminutive, must grow with tremendous speed during this present century, in its knowledge, and in its application to practical conditions. No other science is presented with so grave a problem, and none other is so little prepared for its task.

PUBLIC RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE HEALTH OF INFANTS AND CHILDREN[1]

By Professor Irving Fisher, President of the Committee of One Hundred on National Health, Yale University, New Haven.

When a great necessity exists for any particular reform, there must be responsibility somewhere for securing the desired results. In the case of human health, the responsibility rests with men and women partly as individuals, partly as families, partly as organizations and institutions, and partly as members of a commonwealth. For instance there is individual responsibility for one's own physical welfare; parental responsibility for the health of children, institutional responsibility for the sanitation of school children and factory employees; and state responsibility for control of epidemics, for pure water and pure food. The first two comprise what is ordinarily called "personal" hygiene, and the last two, "public" or "semi-public" hygiene. In calling attention to-day to the importance of the last two of these four forms of responsibility, I would like particularly to emphasize the fact that there is not implied any diminution in the extent of the other two. My advocacy of an increased sense of public responsibility for health does not imply a decreased private responsibility. It does not countenance a shirking of the personal, or parental responsibility. On the contrary, there must be an increase all along the line. The need of moving forward in this matter is so vast and so urgent that we ought to spread all of our four sails and utilize every available square foot of canvas. These four methods of promoting public health, *i. e.*, through the individual, the family, institutions, and the State, are mutually supplementary rather than competitive. An improvement in one direction will stimulate improvement in others. When schools, for instance, shall introduce more universal medical inspection, the fact will serve to direct the attention of parents to the neglect of their children's eyes, teeth, and physical machinery in general. When hygiene is taught in the school, it will be applied at home. When the State endeavors on a larger scale and more intelligently to conserve the vitality of the people, a large part of its work must be in stimulating them to personal hygiene.

[1] An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

And conversely, when the individual citizen appreciates and desires for himself and his family, a more secure hold on this fragile life of ours, the public opinion thus constituted will stimulate the State to more liberal appropriations and more efficient administration. In the last analysis, improvement in the public health must mean changed ideals of life.

Public hygiene then will be at once a cause and an effect of such improvement in health ideals. My object at present is limited to showing its operation as a cause of these ideals and a means of realizing them. My subject is still further limited because only the health of children is under discussion, but here again we note the interdependence of the different branches of hygiene. If we can but compass the hygiene of the child, we shall be taking the quickest route to better hygiene of adult life. There is no surer or quicker way of enlisting the interest of parents in matters of health than by showing the great and needless waste of the little lives more precious to them than their own. Moreover, as the child is father to the man, to make children healthy now means to provide healthy men and women for the next generation.

I am quite aware that there is another side to the picture, and that we are apparently in danger by prolonging the lives of weak infants to interfere with the process of natural selection. I am convinced, however, for reasons which cannot here be explained at length, that there is no real danger from this source of race deterioration, but on the contrary, the promise and potency of race improvement.

Gain to the race will come when a generation of men and women shall grow up, who, because of a perfected hygiene from infancy upward, and lifelong freedom from physiological blights, shall not transmit alcoholic or syphilitic taints to their offspring. Moreover, through infant and child hygiene, we may reasonably expect that they will have acquired ideals of health which will enter so vitally into their lives as to affect their marriage choices. When men and women love wealth or title more than vitality they marry wealth or title rather than vitality, but when once they love vitality more than wealth or title, they will marry vitality. In the long run and in the last analysis, infant hygiene will, I believe, promote far more than retard the eugenics of which Galton dreams.

But these results are in any case remote. They involve problems which are not for us but for our descendants. The immediate problem in hand is, how shall we conserve through our state and public institutions, the lives of our babies and children, and the immediate motive is our love for them as individuals and desire that they shall have a richer life inheritance than we received.

Public responsibility for the health of children applies even before the children are born. It should be recognized that a mother is a public functionary. She is the instrument for the pre-natal nurture of the next generation, and the care of her life and health during this period concerns not only her welfare merely, but that of future generations. Our modern factory system which tends to fit human life to the rigid activity of machine production has overlooked this responsibility. Factory inspection and factory laws concerning the employment of women and other public regulations are needed and must be enforced, unless society is to cease reproduction in proper quantity and quality.

We next observe that at birth there is some public responsibility, as well as private responsibility. Only in a few cities has this responsibility as yet been felt. In these cities there is municipal regulation of the midwife service, and in a few places there is a requirement that the eyes of the newborn babe be immediately disinfected as a precaution against that species of blindness, all too common, which represents the sins of the parents visited on the children.

After the child is born the first and most striking fact which confronts us with regard to infant life is that the rate of mortality under one year of age is more than at any subsequent period of life until extreme old age. About one-fifth of all babies born die within the first year. No one who has studied the fact doubts for a moment that a great part of this mortality is preventable, and while it is true, as Mr. Edward B. Phelps has shown, that the recent apparent improvement in infant mortality is largely unreal and due to better statistics of birth, there is plenty of evidence that infant lives can be saved by a rational application of the laws of health and hygiene. For instance the comparison between the mortality of infants fed on cow's milk and those fed on mother's milk shows that the former is five to ten times that of the latter. While primarily this is a matter on which mothers must be depended upon individually, there is nevertheless also a large field for public hygiene, partly by instructing mothers as to their duties, and still more in safeguarding the babies from the dangers of cow's milk. These dangers lie chiefly in the fact that cow's milk is usually greatly contaminated before it reaches the infant consumer, and partly to the fact that it is not properly "modified." Public Pasteurization such as has been advocated by Nathan Straus in New York, and to a great extent exemplified by his milk depots, will do much to purify the milk supply. Pasteurization, however, has its drawbacks in that it destroys some subtle chemical virtues of raw milk, and unless corrected by the use of lemon juice or other devices, occasionally results in infantile scurvy. A bet-

ter method when practicable is absolute cleanliness in the milk industry. But clean milk is an expensive luxury and should be combined with the education of mothers who cannot afford such clean milk so that they may perform their own pasteurizing. It is possible that recent processes of drying or evaporating milk may go far to supply a milk relatively clean and germ free, and at the same time within the means of the poor. Whatever is the solution of the pure milk supply, it is evident that it must be worked out as a matter of public responsibility. There was once a time when the health of an infant depended exclusively upon its parents, but to-day the great majority of infants' lives are at the mercy of milkmen and tradesmen miles away. Even the part which must be played by the mother is to-day under such new and strange conditions of life that primitive instincts will not suffice. She must be educated in her duties to her child. The proposal to establish an "Infant Science Academy" in large cities is one well worthy of serious consideration. It has had its prototype already in the milk stations of Rochester and other cities, but its functions can be greatly extended beyond the question of milk and made to apply to the entire range of infant hygiene.

After infancy has been passed in safety, the next stage of State responsibility comes with education. There was a time when the best, if not the only education available for children was through their parents. Doubtless parents are by nature the proper teachers of children. But with the development of human knowledge and the increased specialization which modern complex life requires, institutional education has become not only advisable but necessary, and for a century at least the tendency has been for educational institutions to become progressively under the tutelage of the State.

Only latterly, however, has the world awakened in any adequate degree to the public responsibility for the health of the school children. Now that we are beginning to realize the enormous extent of preventable ailments, we are scrutinizing human life in all its stages, and find truly wonderful possibilities in school hygiene.

No one would question the principle that there is grave public responsibility to avoid any injury to the health of the children from school life, as for instance from lack of ventilation or other unsanitary conditions, from over-taxing the brain, from eye-strain, from unhygienic postures for sitting and writing, or from the spread of epidemics of children's diseases. Few would hesitate to go further and maintain that the congregating of school children should be made the occasion of medical inspection for bad teeth, adenoids or other physical defects, even when entirely disconnected from school life. And I believe most people

will now assent even to a third principle—namely, that the healthy physical development of the child should be recognized as an integral part—in fact the basic part—of its education.

There are thus three ways in which school hygiene may be utilized: first, to counteract or prevent any injury from school life; second, to utilize the school machinery for counteracting or preventing other infirmities; and third, to develop the child through physical education,—in brief, sanitation, inspection, and training.

Any one who contrasts a modern model school building with those in which the present generation of American men and women were trained can but shudder to think of the enormous tax which we had to pay in juvenile diseases and other disabilities from which our lives have surely been shortened through the bad air, the bad light, the bad type, the bad seating, etc., to which most of us were subjected a generation ago. This is not to deny, however, that there is still much room for improvement. On the contrary, we have yet to find the ideal school building for ventilation, light, etc., the ideal school hours, or ideal seats, such as will not induce spinal curvature or round shoulders.

As to medical inspection, the work has only just begun, and in this country is still behind that of other countries, notably Switzerland. Doctors Gulick and Ayres, in their book on medical inspection of schools, have shown that only meagre medical inspection exists. Massachusetts is taking the lead in this, as she has in most other hygienic reforms. There are apparently only about seventy cities in the United States, outside of Massachusetts, having some form of medical inspection, while in Massachusetts thirty-two cities and three hundred and twenty-one towns have systems more or less complete. New York City employs one hundred and fifty physicians who visit each public school once a day to examine the children set aside by the teacher as requiring attention. Chicago employs nearly one hundred physicians, and examines about a half a million pupils annually. There is now before the British Parliament a bill to establish a national system of medical inspection.

Both school sanitation and school inspection, however, are purely negative. The positive side of school hygiene consists in incorporating it into education itself. Through conservatism, our schools are still perpetuating the mediæval fallacy that the mind and the body are independent. It would be difficult to find any single idea in history which has done more harm, and we are slowly and painfully finding our way back to the truth of the old Greek view of life, of a sound mind in a sound body, and the old Greek ideal of education, in which gymnastics was an integral part. Ascetic repression of the physical side of our nature not only means an imperfect and one-sided development,

but a stunting of all development, even on the mental and spiritual side. Such repression is opposed to nature. Our natural instincts cry out against it, and so imperious are they among the young that, to the shame of their elders, the school children themselves have supplied the lack by athletic play and games.

It is not, I believe, to the credit of so-called educators that many of them at one time opposed school athletics. There is undoubtedly a danger that certain individual athletes in school and college will specialize in their physical training to the detriment of their studies, and sometimes even to the detriment of their physical selves; but, considered as a whole, athletics is a feature of our educational system which needs be fostered and made universal among all pupils.

And this is the chief aim of the great playground movement. This movement is destined not only to produce healthier children and better scholars, but more useful and devoted citizens. One result of the unnatural repression of the instinct for play has been the tendency of children to get into mischief. The studies of Judge Lindsey in connection with his juvenile court, as well as the investigations of many others, show that the bad boy is usually the boy who wants to play but lacks the opportunity. Said a high Philadelphia official recently, "The greatest enemy to the police is the boy." Boys steal, break windows, insult, afflict, upset and do almost anything in order to satisfy the burning instinct for play. Give them a proper outlet for this proper instinct and you have converted mischief into innocent fun and vice into virtue.

But the physical training of children should not be confined to the time of recess or vacation. It should form part of the curriculum itself. The study of hygiene and physiology should be developed. As at present conducted, it is regarded by physiologists as a somewhat partisan and unscientific treatment of the physiologic effects of alcohol and tobacco. Doubtless it has done much good, but should be extended to include the whole subject of hygiene and sanitation. Local topics of sanitation may be well taken up, as in New Haven, where recently, through the influence of my colleague, Professor Bailey, the interest of all the city school children was enlisted in behalf of a clean city. Dr. Stiles of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service has proposed an annual health week in the public schools, and this proposal has found favor in several states. In Georgia, Chancellor Barrow has proposed an annual health day in the public schools of that state, which would be devoted to lectures on sanitation, on the dangers to be expected from unscreened windows, on the character of hook-worm disease, and various other topics pertaining to hygiene in the South. Such a plan

is already in operation in Boston through the activity of Superintendent Harrington. School sanitation could be used as an object lesson for hygienic instruction in the principles of ventilation, lighting, etc. In the same way, cooking and domestic science could be made to serve the double purpose of providing a hygienic noon meal and training the school children, especially the older girls, in the principles and practice of this vitally important subject.

Our schools are suffering from the conventional idea that education comes from books. Education is preparation for life, and should make use of every efficient method and element—manual training, athletics, laboratory experiments and object lessons of all sorts.

After school life is finished, the children are launched into the world and thenceforth become chiefly responsible for the conduct of their lives, including the hygienic side. While they must still be protected against contagion, unclean streets and impure water and food, they are themselves mainly answerable for conserving the fund of vitality with which they have been endowed. They have received their start in life, and the momentum acquired is likely to tide them over at least a decade.

It is a curious fact that the second decade of life is particularly free from mortality. In my report on National Vitality, as a member of the Conservation Commission, it is shown that not a single cause of death centres its onslaught during this period. Eleven causes of death make their main onslaught in the first year of life, the chief being diarrhœa and enteritis; two are chiefly fatal in the second year of life, namely croup and meningitis; four in the third year of life, including diphtheria and scarlet fever; one in the fifth year, namely diseases of the lymphatics; and two in the eighth year, tonsilitis and tetanus. Then there is a long jump to the twenty-third year of life, after which typhoid fever and the remaining sixty-nine causes of death follow in such a continuous succession that there is scarcely a year of life which must not be set down as the median age for the attack of some disease. It is a little curious that no disease finds its median age between eight and twenty-three, especially when we consider that this comprises the period of adolescence. This fact, however, is not offered in contravention of the idea that special hygiene is needed during those years of transformation. On the contrary nothing is more certain than that the future of the individual, physically and morally, hangs in the balance at this critical age. But while public hygiene has responsibility even for this period in the control of vice, etc., the main responsibility is personal and private; and if through proper hygiene at home and in school the child has acquired normal habits of exercise and self-care, generally

there is little to fear. Adolescence is a crisis in life, but it is a crisis which may be to a large extent previously prepared for.

We conclude, therefore, that the greatest public responsibility applies to infancy and early childhood. I have tried to describe, rather than justify, the nature of this public responsibility, yet three reasons have been hinted at which we may briefly formulate as follows:

First, there is a public responsibility for maintaining health of women before childbirth, of infants and of children, because public or collective action is a cause of ill health through factory life, tenement sanitation, public milk supply, disease-producing schools, etc.

Second, there is further public responsibility because public institutions, such as schools, provide opportunities for medical inspection and the practice of hygiene more cheaply and more effectively than such hygiene could be practised in the home.

Third, there exists a public responsibility for the positive care and training of our national vitality for precisely the same reasons that there is public responsibility for any other kind of training. In other words, if the State has a duty to train individuals for citizenship by providing them with book learning, it has a greater duty in training them for strength, vigor and length of life.

More briefly still, the three grounds of public responsibility for health of infants and children are, first, because public conditions now menace health; second, because existing public institutions can most economically produce health as a by-product; and third, because public health is the corner-stone of national vitality and public service.

THE WORK OF THE NEW YORK SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF VICE, AND ITS BEARINGS ON THE MORALS OF THE YOUNG[1]

By ANTHONY COMSTOCK, Secretary of the New York Society for the Suppression of Vice

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I do not appear here to-night in the capacity of a poet, prose writer or public speaker. I am not here in any capacity except as an expert witness upon the firing line.

I remember while I was at school in New Britain, Connecticut, where I had the advantage of one year in high school, a little incident occurred there that may interest you — the people that live in Massachusetts, at least. I was there when the first Massachusetts regiment started for the seat of war. There was a man in Hartford, publishing a newspaper who took it upon himself to send a message, as it was reported at the time, that no Massachusetts troops would be allowed to cross the domain of the state of Connecticut. General Benjamin F. Butler, who was in command, sent a despatch that on such a day his regiment would pass through Hartford, and if interfered with they would leave the men hanging on the trees behind him. And he went through, and there was not a peep! (Laughter.)

I had the honor of serving in the army nearly two years, from 1863 to 1865. I know what it is to stand on the firing line and to be shot at. I know what it is to stand beside your comrades, and see them fall beside you. I know what it is to see the flash of the battery, to hear the boom of the cannon, and the screech of the shell flying over your head, to hear it explode, and then see the tops of trees fall as the pieces of shell clipped the limbs after its explosion.

But I have encountered, I think, dear friends, more of hardship and more dangers, a meaner foe and more to be dreaded, during the past thirty-seven years that it has been my proud distinction to serve in behalf of the children of this nation and in their defense, than while in the army. I desire to bring before you to-night, some of the facts concerning the foes to moral purity, that you may have a better conception of the dangers that surround the youth of this nation.

[1] An address before the Conference on Child Welfare at Clark University, Worcester, July, 1909.

I have been very much interested in the address to which you have all listened—the developing of that which is best in children—the best ways of developing the child's character.

I understand there are here many who are teachers,—architects and designers of character. You have the child's body before you. That is simply a scaffold. The character is the building. The body is just the scaffold by means of which the building is to be constructed.

How many of you have ever stopped to think that in the heart of every child there is "a chamber of imagery?" the walls of which are ever being decorated; a memory's storehouse, the commissary department of thought. You know in the army the commissary or quartermaster receives, stores up, holds in reserve and gives out on future requisition of the commanding officer, supplies of food, clothing and ammunition. How many of you realize that in this commissary department of the heart there is constantly being stored up good or evil influences; that the Spirit of Evil is ever active in crowding through eye and ear materials which he can use to the destruction of the soul.

The devil is ever seeking to close the door of the heart to that gentle messenger who stands without knocking, and saying, "Behold! I stand at the door and knock." He is ever active to turn the aspirations of the soul away from God, and to substitute instead selfish and degrading influences.

How many of you have ever stopped to think that the boy or girl going along the street may see a picture or some display in a public window that is worse than the bite of a mad dog? If a mad dog breaks loose and bites a child, the child cries out, and thus an alarm is given and men rush to destroy the dog, while the child is hurried into an ambulance to a physician and a remedy is applied. Not so the effect of the vile picture—the cursed influence works in secret. There is no warning given. Imagination is defiled and perverted; thoughts are corrupted; the conscience is seared, the heart is hardened, and the soul damned.

I have not stood thirty-seven years between the children of this nation and the corruptors of the youth, without learning something of what is being done to destroy and undermine character. The devil is a mighty hunter. From the ranks of the children he is constantly making recruits for his kingdom and his service. If he can corrupt the imagination of a child he has a decided advantage over pastor, parent and teacher. He starts evil habits which by-and-by are like fetters and shackles upon the child.

I ask you to bear with me while I go back a little into the early history of this Cause. First of all let me pay a tribute to my beloved mother—a New England mother, and you all know

what that means. I came home from the district school when I was ten years and ten days old, to the old unpainted farmhouse in New Canaan, Connecticut, and found the loveliest mother that had ever lived, dead. She taught her children how to live! She looked upon every one of her children as character builders. Some poet—I do not know who—has, in four lines, condensed and expressed most beautifully the teaching of my mother, and I would like each one of you to carry it as a motto to your classes and to your children in the homes. Impress upon them first of all that they are *character builders*. These are the four lines.

Build it well whate'er you do;
Build it straight and strong and true;
Build it high and clean and broad,
Build it for the Eye of God.

Now is there real danger to the children? How many children are there in this country twenty-one years of age or under? How long would it take you to look into the faces of these children, if you were to stand each day and look at 100,000 different ones as they passed you? At the end of 367 days there would be 27,363 you had not seen, according to the last census. In other words, the last census reported 36,727,363 youths, 21 years of age or under in this country. There are many more than that now.

A great many look upon the work which the New York Society has been accomplishing as a sort of mythical evil—not much to it. Well, let me just say, if you were to transfer from one place to another the matters which we have seized—which these hands have handled—you would require fourteen freight cars, thirteen of them laden with ten tons each to transport the matters that have been seized and destroyed. Among the first seizures that we made we brought the books to the Unionville Paper Mills, Unionville, Conn. Porter, Platner & Co. arranged a large vat into which, after tearing them into pieces, we dumped nearly six tons of printed matter.

Last month we brought into the seizure room of the Society in New York City, one seizure of over 69,000 pictures, which we took from two men (who have since been convicted, and unless they have paid their fines they are now serving their term in jail).

More recently we made another seizure of 333,900 books. That case is coming up in court to-morrow, and that is the reason I have to take the midnight train so as to be in court at ten o'clock to-morrow morning. (Applause.)

Now, just a moment as to the facilities for reaching children. The mails of the United States go everywhere. It is possible for the vilest scoundrel to enclose the very worst matters in an

envelope, address the envelope to the purest child, place the requisite postage upon it, and secretly deposit it in the mail, and if sealed, it must go to its destination.

A complaint comes from an institution of learning to our office. We take the child's place. Here is a matter that some beautiful boy or girl has received through the mails. Now, instead of putting that child's name into the indictment, making him or her go into court to testify that when that envelope was received it contained objectionable matters—the same as I received in my mail yesterday afternoon—we take the child's place. We secure the evidence independent of the child and independent of the institution of learning, and then we bring that man to justice by due process of law; and if we find him receiving mail under a fictitious name, as most of them do, we stop letters going to the fictitious addresses, and send them to the Dead Letter Office; but it is all done under the authority of law. There is no meddling with matters in transit in the mails.

Not a great while ago, I arrested a man on John Street, New York City. He was a stepson of one of the Supreme Court Judges of the State of New York. That man had in his possession, I think, 113 catalogues of the best institutions of learning for boys in the New England and the Middle States. His plan of action was to write a letter, pretending that he had a boy to be educated, asking the professor to send him a catalogue; and then he sent to the students whose names he thus secured, circulars of his devilish wares through the mail. Think of it—113 different institutions of learning where the sons of the best families of the land are being educated, thus invaded by these deadly foes to morals. Unwittingly, the professors in charge of each of those institutions, by sending his catalogue to this party in New York City, personally introduced each one of his students to this murderous scoundrel who was thus seeking out the youth to destroy them morally and spiritually. We raided his establishment, seized his vile stock and catalogues, which I have to-day in my office. We have since convicted him.

To show you something of the strenuous life we lead. Last November, one morning, I sat in my office in New York City, busy at work. That afternoon I was before the Federal Grand Jury in Providence, Rhode Island. The following morning I breakfasted at St. Johnsbury, Vermont. I got out of the train at 3 o'clock in the morning; went to a hotel and staid about a couple of hours, then I arose and hunted up a United States Commissioner. I had my warrants and complaints all drawn. He got out of bed and signed my papers for me. I returned to the hotel, got my breakfast, and took the 6.40 A. M. train to East Hardwick, Vermont. There I took a carriage and drove

out into the country, part of the way through 18 inches of snow, to a farmhouse, where I found the older son of a farmer with his little brother twelve years of age, in a developing room in one corner of his father's woodshed, engaged in making most damnable pictures, which the older brother was scattering broadcast. We seized the negatives and stock on hand, and brought the fellow down to St. Johnsbury, Vermont, where he was committed to jail on two charges. Subsequently he was indicted at Burlington, Vermont, he pleaded "guilty" February last, and was sentenced to serve two years at hard labor in the Federal Prison at Atlanta, Georgia. I am told that this was the first man who was sent out of the State of Vermont to do penal servitude.

We captured another man in New York who was sending the vilest matters to a young lady in Rochester, New York. We convicted him and he was sentenced to seventeen months in the same prison, while another party at the same term of court was sent to the same prison for four years.

The Society, which I have the honor of representing to-night, since the first of January of this year, has made 67 arrests, disposed of more than 90 cases in court, and seized more than three tons of matter. Is it a mythical evil, friends, that we are fighting, or is it something earnest men and women ought to look squarely in the face? There is nothing more beautiful than the innocence of childhood. There is nothing on earth more sacred than woman. And if the highest and most sacred things can be hunted out for the purposes of debauchery, of mind, or body, or soul, then there is reason why every Christian man and woman should stand up straight, and look this devil in the face, and strike from the shoulder in defense of these sacred things in the community.

It is from the boys and girls of to-day that are to come the men and women of to-morrow. It is the character that counts, not the body. As I have already said, the body is only the scaffold from which we build the nobler structure. You fathers, mothers, and teachers stand on the outside of the building. You are appointed to mould this character. You are to lay the foundation deep. You should lay the foundation strong upon the Rock Christ Jesus. You are the ones to shed upon the pathway of the child the light of Him who says "I am the Way, the Truth, and the Life," and may you all see the beauty of the character thus moulded.

I remember one day going down Barclay Street, New York City, that I saw a little Italian boy standing shivering, his features indicating hunger and cold. I motioned him to come to a stand, and gave him an orange or banana—I forget which it was, I think it was an orange. I never saw, dear friends, in

all my life, so beautiful an expression on a human face as on that of the little boy when he looked up into my face and said "Thank you." I have looked for that child from that time till now as I go up and down Barclay Street to the ferry, and I would give a large amount if I could find that little child, if I could see him again, if I could talk with him—if I could see that look in his face!

The innocence of childhood wins the heart of man or woman; but when that innocence is destroyed by the contamination that comes from within, when the boy or girl turn their thoughts in upon themselves, when they begin to construct or allow the devil to construct evil habits, by-and-by the evil habit is formed with such strength that they cannot of their unaided will break away from it. Many a boy and girl will sit quietly in the schoolroom, in the church or in the Sunday school room, while the thoughts and imaginations are being ruled by the devil, in silent day-dreaming over some book or picture of a vicious character which their eyes have rested upon.

I had a case recently in one of the public schools in New York City, where twelve matters had been sent by mail, of a character that I could not show to the most earnest Christian woman or the most venerable man here present, without offending their sense of decency and propriety. Investigation disclosed that a little girl, fourteen years of age, had sent the matter through the mails.

I had another case in one of the public schools just outside of New York City, where frightful matters had been sent to one of the teachers. I sent to the principal a composition, with the request that they would give each child a lesson from dictation, and then each student was to sign his or her name to what they might write. This matter was so arranged that I might get the capital letters at the beginning of sentences, and final letters at the ending of words. Also certain words which had been misspelled. They gave this dictation to one hundred children or more, and afterwards sent those papers to my office. I laid the unlawful matters before me. I then took these various writings and looked them over as though looking for counterfeit bills, and when I got to about the fortieth or forty-second, I laid all the rest aside. I sent again to the principal for a greater volume of handwriting of this particular student. The card complained of had been written by one party, and written over by a second party. We found that the one who wrote the card originally was a boy who had been disciplined by a teacher in another department other than the boy who had written over this card. We found both boys, and the father of the one who had prepared the card originally, sent

his son immediately to Europe, to his grandparents, to get him out of the country.

I had another case, and I have had several cases recently, where a gentleman, a lover, sends to his sweetheart a beautiful letter. That letter was intercepted, torn open, and the most infamous matter inserted. It was then resealed and placed in a private letter box three days later. This was the criminal act of a boy whose mind had been thoroughly corrupted. His inner nature had been changed by brooding over evil things that had come through eye and ear which had preyed upon his imagination and fancy. This fellow was arrested, convicted, and sent to jail.

Your chairman very kindly referred to the work extending beyond this country. Now I do not know whether you know the fact, but still it is nevertheless a fact, that some of the daily and weekly papers and magazines contain, oftentimes, advertisements of the most questionable character of dealers in foreign countries. I investigate these parties precisely as if they were residents of this country.

One party advertised from Amsterdam, Holland. I sent him a Test Letter. I got back his answer. I made a report to the Secretary of State through the Postmaster General of Washington. I requested that the attention of the authorities in Amsterdam, Holland, be called to this man, and I sent them the evidences of his crime. A few weeks after that I received a communication from Budapest, Hungary. The party said he had corresponded with me before from Amsterdam, that the authorities had gotten after him there, and as he was liable to have trouble, he had gone to Budapest where he would gladly fill orders. (Laughter.) It did not take long to get him out of Budapest.

I made an arrest in Milwaukee where I seized a large amount of matter that was being advertised and sent through the mails by a man who was operating secretly under a fictitious address. In making the seizure I found an envelope postmarked "Rome, Italy," bearing a return card from Rome, Italy. I made investigation and received back nearly three thousand varieties of miniature pictures which were being made in Rome, Italy, and sent into this country. I made my report officially to the Postmaster General, Washington, D. C., asking that the Secretary of State instruct our Minister in Italy to call this matter to the attention of the authorities in Rome. It did not take long to put that fellow out of business. He had a place near the Vatican, and the pictures were made up of figures dressed as priests and nuns, sacrilegious and infamous in the extreme.

In Paris, France, there were several parties who advertised

in our magazines. We notified the editors of these magazines that those advertisements could not go through the mails.

Once in a while we have some editor ask, "If we don't stop this advertisement, what are you going to do?" We say, "Do as you please, but your paper or magazine will not go through the mails with that advertisement in it. You are notified now. If you continue that advertisement in your future issues, the whole will go to the Dead Letter Office, and you will go to jail." They are generally inclined to respect the law; but it requires a little bit of grace and grit to deal with this enemy.

I would be glad to give you one or two personal incidents, which I think will interest you, concerning the beginning of this movement on behalf of the children of the land.

In 1872 I was a salesman in a wholesale dry goods house in the City of New York. I had gone from Connecticut a few years before that and one fine day landed at City Hall, New York, with $3.45 in my pocket as capital. I had, however, a bank account left me by my sainted mother. She taught her children in effect, as follows:

Before all action prayer. Over all, prayer, "Thy will be done." After prayer put yourself in the way of receiving and securing the answer. In other words, be up and doing.

I am free to state to you here, good friends, one thing that perhaps you do not know. My life would not be worth living if you took out of it the doing of the Master's will day by day. And I speak in vain before you if I do not make you see the hand of God in the great work which was committed to my hands more than thirty-seven years ago.

I was a poor boy from New England. I walked the streets of New York praying God to give me something to do, carrying out the very principles and teachings of my beloved mother by prayer and effort. After one week of disappointment I entered a dry goods house, 37 Warren Street. The gentleman said to me, "Young man, we have a place as a third porter, but I fear you will not care to take it." I said to myself, "If the place will not honor me, I will honor the place," and went to work in dead earnest. Shortly afterwards I left there and went across the way to a wholesale notion house, for my whole ambition was to make a self-made man of myself as a merchant. I had no thought of such service as I have had to render for the last thirty-seven years. I went to the new place at $5.00 a week and lived high. I had a hall bedroom with all the facilities for dying. (Laughter.) Part of the time I had a room in a lodging house and got my meals in a cheap restaurant.

While I was in these lowly positions, my attention was

called to young men who were falling like autumn leaves about me from the terrible scourges of vile books and pictures. At that time 169 different books were published in this country, most of them of a character you would not open in the presence of the most saintly man in this room, much less allow to fall before the eye of the most devoted mother. In connection with these books were sold thousands of pictures.

The tabular statement which I have before me here, up to last January, discloses more than 12,940 negatives which we have seized for making infamous pictures.

There were no laws adequate, at that time, to reach this evil. It was a crucial moment in my life.

Before marrying I had purchased a home. I tell you, young men, that I believed in being my own landlord. I said I would rather pay interest on a mortgage than pay rent. So I bought a home with the first five hundred dollars I was able to scrape together. I mortgaged it for $6,000.00 (laughter) and then I went out and got one of the sweetest and loveliest girls I could find—she is living yet, bless her heart—to come and preside over it, and we were married, and things were looking bright for me. I had my business fairly established; and then came the awful revelation that there were 169 books published in this country; that there was an organized business which struck deadly blows at the morals of the young. Young men were falling into lives of shame beside me, and being cursed for life. Could I give up my business to assail this evil? I am frank to say to you that I could not sleep till I took the place that I belived God desired me to fill. It is disagreeable and unwholesome, intolerable except for the joy of service for the Master and the doing of His will day by day.

Let me say to you young men and young ladies there is nothing equal to the joy of service for the Master in just the place where he stations you.

A soldier detailed on picket is sometimes stationed on the hilltops, sometimes on the side of the hill, sometimes in the valley, in the swamp, where his feet may be wet with moisture, and where snakes and alligators come uncomfortably near. I have been thus detailed in the Florida swamps and know what these experiences are.

But a soldier detailed at the mouth of a sewer is just as much a soldier as the one who stands on the hilltop. No matter what the local surroundings of the soldier, if, as in my case, there are thousands of children to safeguard from deadly foes, then the detail is one of utmost importance, and no man need feel ashamed to fill any assignment that divine Providence gives him.

The Divine Commander can make no mistake. We make mistakes when we hesitate and turn our backs upon the unpleasant conditions and desert the post of duty, or when we are controlled by the influences and harsh judgments of our neighbors and friends who do not know the reason why.

I trust I may be pardoned if I give a little personal detail concerning the beginning of the present movement, now represented by the New York Society for the Suppression of Vice.

In the early part of 1872, I discovered a man who had a circulating library of the worst books which he was loaning at so much a week to young men. I started out to bring this scoundrel to justice, and before entering his place to secure the evidence, spoke to a police officer standing upon the sidewalk, telling him the character of the business which this man was doing, and that I was going in to secure the evidence and then would give him a signal when I wanted him to come in and arrest the party.

I entered the store leaving the uniformed officer upon his beat on the sidewalk. While I was glancing over a printed catalogue, containing a list of books and pictures, in order to make a selection, this uniformed police officer came into the store, called the party who was waiting upon me to the back part of the store, told him what I was after, and then walked out.

Of course, the party would not sell me a book or picture; but I retained the catalogue which he had given me, went to police headquarters, preferred a charge against this police officer, and had him dismissed from the force.

Then it was that the newspapers began to denounce me, and one of them published something to the effect that 'if I was the Christian man I professed to be, I could find plenty of these places in Ann and Nassau streets.'

Profiting by the information thus given me, on the 3rd of March 1872, I went down to Ann and Nassau streets with a representative of the "New York Tribune," and we made seven arrests. This may be said to be the opening gun of the present campaign.

Shortly after these arrests, I discovered that there were 169 different books published in this country; that there was an organized business systematically carried on to corrupt the youth of the nation, and that the vilest books and articles were openly advertised. The very serious question then arose—What are you going to do about it? I had neither means nor position. I had been in a courtroom but once or twice in my life. I had established a home and had a family to support. I had no means to work with, nor had I any ac-

quaintances or friends. What could I do? I could pray to God for friends and means to work with. I carried out the early teachings of my sainted mother. What was the result?

In a very brief period a princely man came to the store where I was employed. I came forward and received one of the most royal greetings I had ever received in my life. This man was Morris K. Jesup. He talked with me concerning the evil which I had discovered. He invited the poor, unknown boy up to his princely mansion on Madison Avenue, where I was set down at his own table, and introduced to his noble and beloved wife.

After I had discovered that there were four men systematically publishing the 169 different books, I set about to secure the plates and engravings from which these books were printed. Some of the books were illustrated with steel and copper plate engravings. Some of the cheaper ones were illustrated with woodcuts.

Mr. Jesup sent me a check for $650.00. Out of that sum $150.00 was to reimburse me for the time and money I had already expended. The balance was to be used in securing, if possible, the stock of these four publishers. With $450.00 of this amount, I seized upwards of $30,000.00 worth of steel and copper plates, woodcuts, and stereotype plates for printing 24 of the worst books ever published, which belonged to a man named Haynes.

Shortly afterwards, I secured about $16,000.00 worth of similar plates from another publisher.

I then secured evidence against three other men and went before the police court and asked for a warrant and search warrant. I was ordered out of the courtroom and scorned by the magistrate sitting upon the bench. There was one thing, however, which my mother never taught me, and that was to run from the enemy. She never advocated placing any one of her children in a position where he would be shot in the back.

I went before the learned Recorder Hackett and submitted the facts to him. He issued a warrant and a search warrant, and we secured from one printer nearly six tons of stereotype plates for printing 109 different books.

From a binder, opposite the Tombs Prison in Center Street, we took the letter-press for about 10,000 books, which had just been published by the owner of these plates, and sent there to be bound.

We then visited the store of the publisher of these books in Ann Street, where we seized nearly three more tons of books. So that inside of three months this poor boy, without means, who put his trust in God, had secured the plates for printing

167 of the 169 books then being published. So wonderfully did God answer prayer. To his name be all the glory.

In the fall of that year we found that the laws were not adequate to reach the business as it was then organized and being systematically carried on.

A few gentlemen came together, on the invitation of Mr. Jesup, and I submitted to them a draft of a bill which I had prepared. Some of them ridiculed the idea of getting such a bill through Congress, especially as Congress was about to adjourn. Again I seemed facing an unsurmountable obstacle. I could only get upon my knees and pray for guidance and direction.

I then laid the matter before Mr. Jesup, who advised me to go to Washington, assuring me that he would guarantee the expenses provided I was able to secure the enactment of these laws.

January 27, 1873, I went to Washington, submitted my bills to Mr. Benjamin Vaughan Abbott, and subsequently to Mr. Justice William Strong of the Supreme Court. They revised the matter and had it put in due form.

The bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Honorable Clinton L. Merriam and was cared for in the Senate by Senator William A. Buckingham, the former Governor of Connecticut.

Shortly after the introduction of our bills, we found that General Butler, of Massachusetts, had introduced a bill to prevent the dissemination of these matters in the District of Columbia. We also found that there was no adequate law to prohibit the importation of obscene matters into this country. Accordingly, five sections of law were drafted, covering the mails; the District of Columbia, Territories and Provinces over which Congress had exclusive jurisdiction, and closing the ports of the nation to these infamous matters by the introduction of these bills.

Until midnight of March 2nd I anxiously watched over these measures which were bombarded by the newspapers in the most malignant manner, while the most unscrupulous assaults upon me personally were sent by mail to members of both Houses of Congress. It would be hard to publish a libel blacker than those hurled against me and against those laws. My trust, however, was not in men but in God.

I shall never forget the suspense of the Saturday night, March 2, 1873. Sunday, March 3, closed the first year's labors in this great cause.

Our bill had passed the Senate, and for days it had been upon Speaker Blaine's desk, in the House of Representatives. Day after day, and night after night, we had anxiously hoped

to have our bill called up for passage in the House of Representatives. Weary days of anxious watching had nearly worn the body out, and at midnight of this Saturday, I sat in the House of Representatives anxiously watching until Speaker Blaine should call up this bill for its final passage. At 12 o'clock something said, "Remember the Sabbath Day to keep it holy." Expediency suggested, "Oh, but your duty is here. You must stay and watch the bill or be defeated." Again the still small voice said, "Remember the Sabbath Day to keep it holy. Can you expect God's blessing if you do not obey his commandments?"

I accordingly left the House of Representatives and walked down from the Capitol to Pennsylvania Avenue on that cold winter's night with my spirits overwhelmed within me. I sought my room with defeat staring me in the face. I thought of the triumph of the newspapers and of my enemies if the bill failed. But the heavier burden was the thought that for another year the ports and mails of the country would be open for the importation and transmission of these infamous things among the children of the nation.

Again I thought what shall I do with the expenses which have been incurred, as the promise had been that if the bill went through, Mr. Jesup would guarantee the expenses. I could not bring myself to say, "Thy will be done," if the bill does not pass.

The next morning which was Sunday, after a restless night, I essayed to go to church. I reached the church door, but something seemed to turn me back. I went again to my room, and there I learned the most wonderful lesson of my whole life. I threw myself upon my knees and prayed that I might say, "Thy will, not mine, be done." Then there came light, joy and peace which no words can describe. I could then go home in peace—defeated. It seemed as if the Spirit of the Most High descended upon me and my will yielded to his.

That afternoon I went to the rooms of the Y. M. C. A., to attend the services. As I entered the rooms, I met the Rev. Dr. Newman, Chaplain of the Senate, who took me by the hand and said, "How is it?" I answered, "It is all right, it is in God's hands."

Then was revealed the wonderful faithfulness and goodness of God, for the chaplain said, "Your bill passed last night." I said, "What, sir!" He said, "Speaker Blaine called it up last night and it passed just before the House adjourned. "Yes," I said, "but there is a saving clause amendment that will send it back to the Senate—but it is all right."

Shortly afterwards, I met Mr. Smith, the official stenographer of Congress, and in his quiet way he said, "Your

bill passed last night." "Yes, I said, "Dr. Newman has just told me, but there is a saving clause which will send it back to the Senate." Then, wonderful to say, he informed me that he had taken the bill to the engrossing clerk, and had the amendment engrossed; that he had taken it to Speaker Blaine who had signed it and sent it, by special messenger, over to the Senate; that he had gone over to the Senate so as to be there when the bill was announced by the messenger; that when it was announced he said to Senator Buckingham "that is Comstock's bill," and Senator Buckingham immediately put it upon its passage, and it now awaits President Grant's signature.

Can you not see, dear friends, that it was not anything that I did, that accomplished these wonderful results? I trusted in God, I prayed to him, and he had already answered my prayer—but can you not see his wonderful love, and that he withheld the answer to that prayer until such time as he taught his child to say "Not my will, but Thine be done?"

Shortly after leaving the House of Representatives my prayer was answered by the bill passing both Houses, and yet that fact was withheld until He taught me the most precious lessons of my life. And so, dear friends, from out of this beginning I have been permitted to carry on this work by the blessing of God who has raised up friends and means to sustain it.

The work of this Society is sustained entirely by voluntary contributions. I am living in the hopes that somebody will some day give us the means to establish a permanent income in defense of the children of the nation. Be that as it may, God has provided the means for carrying on this work from 1872 down to the present time.

If I had time I should like to tell you of the fearful conspiracies of 1876-7, when the enemy came in upon me like a flood and sought to repeal these laws. Time will not permit me to go into details.

Permit me to say briefly that in 1876 the so-called "Liberals" and "Free Thinkers" held a convention in the City of Philadelphia where a resolution was offered "Shall we repeal the Comstock Laws?" as they honored me by naming these statutes. Month after month I was pursued by my enemies in a most malignant manner.

About 17,000 circulars bearing the names of reputable merchants in New York, containing most malicious libels, were sent out to the newspapers of the country with a view of creating an adverse public sentiment against these statutes and against myself. Civil suits were instituted in various places to harass my efforts.

A package said to contain smallpox scabs was sent by mail

into my home. An infected porcus plaster was sent into my office by mail; and an infernal machine brought by a boy messenger containing a 16 ounce bottle of fine rifle powder and a bottle of sulphuric acid, packed with broken glass, and so arranged that when the lid of the box was moved the lever would fly back and ignite friction matches which surrounded an igniting fuse, connected with the powder, and instantly explode the powder. "Man proposes, but God diposes." "Be not dismayed, I am thy God" were my comfort and stay.

Again, they published what they called "The Life and Crimes of Anthony Comstock" (Laughter). This infamous libel was written by a man whom I caught committing a felony, who subsequently came behind me one day as I came out of the Federal Court in New York City, and spit in my face, then struck me over the head with his cane, breaking the cane, after which he dropped his cane and lay down in a corner,and I handed him over to an officer.

These conspiracies resulted in a petition, 2,100 feet long, said to contain 70,000 signatures, being sent to Congress. This petition was introduced by General Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, and was referred to the committee on the Revision of Laws in the House of Representatives. The day was set for a hearing before this committee. The newspapers teemed with the most malicious libels and severe criticisms.

The pamphlets sent out by the conspirators to the daily and weekly press had borne fruit. There seemed to be a very strong public sentiment against the laws and against myself.

Upon reaching Congress on the morning of the day of the hearing, I found that the Associate Press had sent out a dispatch from Washington the day before, announcing that I had been arrested in four different courts and that one District Attorney alone had 11 counts in an indictment against me for tampering with the mail.

I found the infamous pamphlet "Life and Crimes of Anthony Comstock" placed on the congressmen's desks and displayed on the public streets, and on the stand in the rotunda of the Capitol for "free distribution."

To give you a little idea of this "liberal" movement to repeal these laws, I have but to call your attention to the fact that this pamphlet falsely charged my father with being a postmaster of New Britain, Connecticut, where he was dismissed from the service in disgrace. It charged that I was a sutler clerk in a Connecticut regiment; that I was driven out of the regiment for swindling the soldiers, and robbing my employer.

It then took up some of the most prominent cases which had been prosecuted by "due process of law" by district attorneys in the courts where juries had convicted, and distorting the

facts made it to appear as if great outrages had been perpetrated against the persons who had been convicted.

It is only just to my father and myself that I should state that he never was postmaster at New Britain, or any other place, and had never lived in New Britain; that I was not a sutler's clerk in any regiment, but that I served faithfully for nearly two years after the death of my older brother, in the 17th Connecticut Regiment, voluntarily filling the vacancy in that regiment caused by his death; and there I served until the close of the war and received an honorable discharge.

It was in the face of such malicious attacks on the part of my enemies, that I went to Washington and appeared before the Committee on the Revision of Laws. When I entered the room it was packed and every seat was occupied. I could hear the hissing and cursing of my opponents, as I was pointed out upon entering the room. There was one man, however, in that room, who had the moral courage to come over and speak to me, and shake hands with me. He directed a clerk to procure a chair for me to occupy. That man was Congressman Kasson, of Iowa. He had been in the marshal's office in Des Moines, Iowa, on a previous occasion when I had arrested a woman for sending the most infamous matters to young girls through the mails; had seen letters sent by ministers' daughters and others to this creature, and realized something of the necessity and importance of the work which was being accomplished. And in the face of all this opposition I found it better to trust God than to put confidence in men.

My opponents occupied nearly two hours of the time in bitter vituperations and attacks upon me, and in misrepresenting what had been accomplished under these statutes.

Finally it came my turn to speak. I said to the members of this committee that I was not there to take up the valuable time of the committee with any defense of myself; but that I was there to present to them the reasons why these laws should not be changed. If, after that duty had been discharged, any member of the committee deemed me guilty of any act unbecoming a faithful officer, that I demanded the most searching investigation made in the most public manner.

After I had finished my address before the committee, certain of my opponents arose again to controvert what I had said. One member of this committee, however, moved that the debate close and that it should go into executive session. The room was thereupon cleared, but the despised agent was asked to remain and answer questions, and then it was absolutely proven that it was "better to trust God than to put confidence in men;" and "One shall put a thousand, and two, ten

thousand to flight." The committee reported unanimously against any repeal or change whatever. (Applause.)

In conclusion let me say there is need for aggressive work all along the line of my work. My friends, there is need for every father and every mother to watch and safeguard the chamber of imagery in the hearts of their children; and to guard the children against these corroding influences which destroy self-respect and eat out all that is noble and divine within, leaving that which is sensual and devilish instead.

The children of this nation are worthy of our best thought and service. If we are to have noble men and women in the future, we must guard the children in our own homes and in our institutions of learning from the encroachments of the "moral cancer-planters" of the day.

I should be pleased to answer any questions on any subject that anybody desires to ask. (Loud applause.)

The Chairman: I think that the lateness of the hour forbids that we should detain this meeting longer, unless some one is anxious to ask Mr. Comstock a question, but just here I want to say is there any one here that knows a good man when they see him to-night? (Laughter and applause.)

But, my friends, I only want to say that there are hundreds of thousands of people who call themselves respectable, who call themselves Christians, who do all they can to roast Mr. Comstock. Why is it? What is the matter with our standards?

The meeting stands adjourned.

Mrs. Frederick Schoff: "I would like to ask one question. I want to know whether you see any difference in the last few years; whether the indecent publications are increasing or decreasing?"

Mr. Comstock: "They are decreasing in a large percentage. I spoke of seizing three tons last month. Two men on Sixth Avenue had united their forces and started a wholesale trade. We were able to run them down in a few days, and seized their stock of over 69,000 pictures.

In another instance, the Mayor of New York City sent a booklet to police headquarters. An officer brought the same to our office. In less than 48 hours afterwards, we had seized upwards of 333,000 books. The bulk of this seizure had just been received that morning from the printer in Rochester, New York. We captured more than two and three-quarter tons of matter before they had a chance to disseminate it.

There is another party out West against whom I have secured evidence through the assistance of a man whom I had previously convicted. By treating this man courteously, and helping him after he got out of prison, I won him over to

my side. This man rendered the most valuable assistance and largely, through his efforts, I have been able to secure evidence against a most notorious scoundrel in Toledo, Ohio, whom I expect to capture in a few days.

———? Do they still attack you physically?

Mr. Comstock: "Yes, a fellow whom I arrested a few days ago, assaulted me by kicks and blows while going to court, and said he was going to kill me, and threatened to shoot me both while going to court and while in the courtroom. He was committed for six months in default of $500.00 bail, to keep the peace. But these are matters of little consequence; for over all is written, 'Fear not, I am with thee; be not dismayed, I am thy God.' Again, 'No weapon formed against thee shall prosper, and every tongue that shall rise against thee in judgment thou shalt condemn. This is the heritage of the servants of the Lord; and their righteousness is of me, saith the Lord.' These are my banner texts."

In conclusion may I say that it is a great pleasure to look into your kindly faces and to feel the uplift and inspiration of your sympathy. Let me say to you, dear friends, I believe that the work committed to my hands is one of the most important works any organization is doing to-day in this country, involving, as it does, the defence of the morals of 36,727,363 boys and girls. (Applause.)

LITERATURE

Exercise in Education and Medicine, by R. TAIT MCKENZIE. W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia, 1909. 406 p.

This is one of the best and most comprehensive books ever written upon this large topic. It is addressed to students and practitioners of physical training and to teachers of youth, students of medicine, and doctors, and its purpose, evidently, is not so much systematic completeness in the presentation of everything that can be said from a theoretical standpoint about the subject, but a concise description of what is actually being done in the field. It has 345 illustrations, well chosen and helpful, and its scope is admirable, including not only definitions and classifications and the physiology of exercise, but massage, passive motion, useful apparatus, the German, Swedish and Japanese systems, relations to age, sex and occupation, playgrounds and municipal gymnasia, physical education in the schools, colleges, universities, for the blind, deaf, morally defective, its application to pathological conditions, flat foot, round back, uneven shoulders, scoliosis, relations to circulation and its diseases, to obesity, disorders of nutrition, nervous diseases, and motor ataxia.

The Son of Mary Bethel, by ELSA BARKER. Duffield & Co., New York, 1909. 549 p.

This is a story of the life of Christ translated into modern times. The hero was born in a village in Vermont, son of a carpenter, and learned the trade of his father but was rarely endowed. The youth is filled out with many incidents and a love story runs through the whole. The names are parallel to those of the New Testament, most of the heroes of which appear. Jesus equals Jesse, becomes an itinerant preacher, drawing great crowds and pushing on to cities. He finally approaches New York, stopping a while on the Palisades to preach to crowds who come out to him. The newspapers herald his advent and the crowds that flock to hear him present a difficult problem for the police. A cabal against him is formed led by a leading orthodox pastor of a Fifth Avenue church, who plots to entangle and confound him as well as to exclude him from churches and to disown and discredit him. At an immense meeting in a park he is finally forbidden to speak, and in a tumult caused between his friends and officers of the law is killed by a blow on the head from a policeman's billy. His followers meet after his death and revere his memory and try to renew his living presence among them.

Proceedings of the Third Annual Congress of the Playground Association of America, held at Pittsburgh, Pa., May 10 to 14, 1909. (Published in Twelve Numbers.) Report of the Committee on a Normal Course in Play. Published by the Playground Association of America, 1 Madison Ave. New York, Aug., 1909, Vol. 3, No. 3. 288 p.

This is the most important document put forth by the Playground Association and is largely the work of its recent secretary, Dr. Henry S. Curtis, who has had much help from Professor C. W. Hetherington, of Missouri. After describing the organization of the committee, its

fundamental problems and the preliminary studies and certain special problems, the body of the work is a description of courses; first, a normal course of play for professional directors; second, an institute course in play; third, a course in play for grade teachers. The appendix contains simple athletic competition blanks for the athletic badge for boys and girls, a class of group athletics, etc. This is a work which will be eagerly read by every one interested in this problem, which is absorbing so much interest throughout the nation at the present time.

Report on Moral Instruction (General and Denominational) and on Moral Training in the Schools of Austria, Belgium, the British Empire, China, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States, by GUSTAV SPILLER. Watts and Company, London, 1909. 362 p.

About a century ago the great majority of men lived, loved and died in villages. Now man dwells largely in towns. They travel and read the papers and in every respect life has become very complex. The problems of moral education have grown correspondingly intricate. The great change of the present day is the greater or less emancipation of moral from religious education and the almost universal belief that in some form or other morality should be an essential ingredient in education at every stage and in every institution. Not only that, but ethical ends should be supreme. The most valuable feature of this book is the often rather detailed account given of the methods of moral education in different countries and the bibliography of about sixty pages of titles arranged by countries. This makes the book a valuable guide for all students in this field.

Report of the Education Committee of the London County Council, submitting the Report of the Medical Officer (Education) for the twenty-one months ended 31st December, 1908. P. S. King & Son, London, 1909. 79 p.

This admirable report gives first the provisions of medical inspection, history, staff, routine, register, buildings, laws, examination of candidates, infectious diseases, vaccination in the training colleges, secondary schools, etc. It then proceeds with the examination of infants, concerning large glands, adenoids, bad nutrition, anæmia, with a brief account of the important results of the Würtemburg tests, school excursions, dilation of the heart, teeth, vision, ring-worms, favus, debilitation, tuberculosis, nasal obstruction, speech, needle work, school dust, disinfectants, dustless oils, school nurses, personal hygiene, cleansing the school, clothes, erysipelas, sickness in class, charts, closures, infectious diseases, notice of patients and mode of inquiry, bacteriological germs, diphtheria, scarlatina and measles, a special class for the defectives, ineducable children who have a school of their own in Leo Street, moral defectives and their custody, recidivists, imbeciles, open air schools and characteristics of the same, physical measurements. The elaborate tables and charts show these results and leave nothing to be desired.

The Education of the Will; a Popular Study, by T. SHARPER KNOWLSON. Lippincott, Philadelphia, n. d. 210 p.

Here we find discussions upon the psychology of the will, auto-suggestion in theory, the relation of the will to health, to education, will power in memory training, in the creative imagination, in business and in development of character, with appendixes discussing auto-suggestion, the permanence of acquired moral habits, etc. It is a

representative book of a large class that have come to editorial notice in these pages within the last ten years written by people of varying shades of knowledge and theory, but who are greatly impressed with the influence of the mind on the body in disease and health. This author does not seem to us at all well-informed concerning the more scientific literature bearing upon the subject, but writes with great earnestness and plenary conviction.

Selections From Early American Writers, 1607-1800, edited by WILLIAM B. CAIRNS. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1909. 493 p.

These selections are from representative writers before Washington Irving and are intended for use in class rooms by students who are making a fairly thorough study of American literature, for reference and assigned reading. It is recognized that extracts are a poor substitute for access to complete works. But good libraries are rare and something of this sort is a real desideratum. It is more and more recognized that some knowledge of the temper and manner of colonial and revolutionary writers is important, although there is still little agreement as to authors and works that best repay study. These extracts include perhaps two score of names and begin with John Smith.

Museums of Education—Their History and Use, by BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS. Reprinted from the Teachers' College Record, Vol. 9. No. 4, Sept., 1908, pp. 195-291. New York, 1908.

This is a very interesting, timely and needed compilation. The author has shown a great deal of diligence. After discussing briefly the museum problem, he describes such museums as exist in the United States, then those of the world outside the United States. It is in these three sections that the chief value of this compilation lies. In the fourth and last section, he discusses the organization of museums and their worth to America, administrative principles, etc. With the literature of the topic, the author seems to have taken special pains. The pedagogical world has hardly begun to realize the significance and possible value of such institutions.

A Text-Book of Physics, edited by A. WILMER DUFF. 2nd ed. rev. P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Philadelphia, 1909. 698 p.

This represents the attempt of seven experienced teachers of college physics to prepare a text that would be more satisfactory to all of them than any existing one. The teacher might begin his instructions with the words of Demosthenes, "In the name of the gods I beg you to think." This edition embodies numerous suggestions received from those who have used the first edition in their classes. It is a stately volume, but as the authors well say, teachers may exclude *ad libitum*. There are 525 illustrations. The authors have by no means excluded mathematics but have reduced this factor to far less dimensions than was the custom in text-books written a decade ago.

Writing and Speaking, by CHARLES SEARS BALDWIN. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1909. 445 p.

In this book composition is assumed as deriving its value and method from constant relation to other studies and as needing less to be recited than to be done. The actual writing of the student is presupposed as the first material of analysis. The exercises, though full enough to offer choice and adaptation, are typical and intended to suggest at each point as many more by indicating the different directions of practice. Part first, clearness and interest; part second,

clearness in bringing books to bear analysis of reading for argument and exposition. Under these captions there are in all ten chapters.

Teaching Children to Study, by LIDA B. EARHART. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston, 1909. 182 p.

This little work discusses the nature of logical, inductive, and deductive study, the relation of rational to text-book study, discusses the question whether children have the ability to study logically, are and can be taught to do so, and contains suggestions for the training of children how to study. To us the book seems extremely abstract and made from reading books rather than from knowledge of children, although there are very few topics which should utilize the deliverances of child study as this one should do. There are very few literary allusions and only six references to other works upon this subject.

Administration and Educational Work of American Juvenile Reform Schools, by DAVID S. SNEDDEN. Columbia University Contributions to Education. Teachers College Series, No. 12. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1907. 206 p.

This work has chapters on the history of the subject, relation to the state, scope, distribution and teaching force, children committed, educational work of reform schools (continued through three chapters), the parole system, results, the juvenile court and probation. The author concludes that the work of the juvenile reform schools is a phase of social education before which several lines of possible future development are open. Economic independence is desirable and there should be regular training of teachers for this work. There are many lessons which the public school should and could learn from the reform school.

The Knights of the Holy Grail; a solution of the boy problem, by PERRY EDWARDS POWELL. Jennings & Graham, Cincinnati, n.d. 143 p.

The boy, we are told, is mystic, private, clannish, chivalrous and very religious, a lover of the best, with great possibilities of patriotism and devotion. King Arthur is perhaps the very best of all heroes for boys and the Holy Grail is an idyll which represents the effects of religion upon man. The order was really born in 1898. This book is chiefly devoted to a characterization of the ritual, including the legacy, festivals and loss of the Holy Grail. It is practical and describes coronation, heraldry, hints to Merlin, the prelate's work, the senate, how to camp, and the several virtues, of which chastity leads, which it is designed to inculcate.

Laggards in Our Schools, by LEONARD P. AYRES. Charities Publication Committee, New York, 1909. 236 p.

This is another of the excellent publications of the Russell Sage Foundation, with twenty chapters and thirty-eight diagrams. The more attractive topics are an account of the investigations of backward children, the problems of retardation and elimination, grade distribution, morality and survival in the grades, elimination studies, money cost of repeaters, causes of leaving school, national factor, physical defects and school progress, irregular attendance as a cause of retardation, promotions, sex, age the controlling factor in elimination, are conditions improving? an index of efficiency for public school systems, remedial measures—legislative and administrative, reform in and through school records, retardation and society.

The Origin of Leadership, by EBEN MUMFORD. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1909. 87 p.

This is a thesis of more than ordinary value. It makes a certain distinct advance over the psycho-pedagogical study of the same subject made by Terman at Clark University. It discusses it as an innate and acquired modal society tendency; treats of its relations to organizing phases of social progress, or the habitual adaptive phases of association; discusses its relation to social structures and functions, genetically considered; traces it in the pre-maternal stage and through the matriarchal and patriarchal stage.

The Early Education of Children, by LAURA L. PLAISTED. The Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1909. 398 p.

The author first treats of the teacher, the child, the parent; then discusses what to do with the child under five, especially treats of the Froebel pictures, stories, music, games, handwork and colors. The second part is devoted to the work of older infants, the mother tongue, stories, poetry, pictures, nature, correlation of lessons, teaching reading, writing, number, handwork, singing, physical training, with an appendix by Dr. Ormerod on the medical responsibilities of the school teacher. On the whole, it is a good book which represents the life experience and conclusions of a successful English teacher, and cannot fail to be of interest to kindergartners.

The American High School, by JOHN FRANKLIN BROWN. Macmillan Co., New York, 1909. 462 p.

This volume, we are told, is not an exhaustive treatment of the subject but merely an introduction to it. As a rule, most who leave the High School enter on careers for which the High School has given them no preparation whatever. The same is true of colleges. The various chapters discuss function and programme, organization, management, equipment, principal, teacher, pupil, class exercises, government, social life, community, present problems and future development, especially the reorganization of the curriculum, also the small High School, sex, finance, and various other more or less incidental matters. The work is a convenient introduction to the subject.

Genetic Psychology, by EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1909. 373 p.

The author has devoted nearly a score of years to the study of child psychology and here tries to formulate the broader truths based on his experience as a lecturer to summer students at Columbia and Chicago. Much space is given to the study of instinct in animals; and then the author proceeds to consider the acquisition of habits and ideals, structures involved in complete behavior and ideation, consciousness and its specific states, types of adaptive activity of learning with racial and individual development. Each chapter has a bibliography appended.

Teaching Children to Study, by OLIVE M. JONES, ELEANOR G. LEARY and AGNES M. QUISH. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1909. 189 p.

This is a very interesting volume, although it might be condensed. It sets forth the practical methods of using the group system to give the child habits of self-reliant study and to secure for the exceptional child, whether bright or dull, the teaching adapted to his own needs. It is a classroom book and deals with the group system in practice, including the various systems of grouping, the daily programme,

construction period, seat work. The second part is devoted to plans and types of seat work—reading, composition, arithmetic, etc.

Scientific Living for Prolonging the Term of Human Life. The New Domestic Science; Cooking to Simplify Living and Retain the Life Elements in Food, by LAURA NETTLETON BROWN. The Health-Culture Co., Passaic, N. J., 1909. 284 p.

This book is dedicated to the writer's husband and children and to the mothers of now and to the mothers yet to be. In the twenty-one chapters the following are perhaps the chief:—the purpose of life; the normal man; regulation, purpose of regular eating; the importance of proteids; object of cooking and the application of heat; the fireless cooker; proper combinations; chemistry of food; time of eating, emancipation of woman; the exact method of cooking; a dozen different dishes, with a special chapter on sweets and luxuries.

English Literature. Its History and Its Significance for the Life of the English-Speaking World, by WILLIAM J. LONG. Ginn & Co., Boston, 1909. 568 p.

This book presents the whole history of English literature from Anglo-Saxon times to the close of the Victorian era and has three aims; first, to arouse and stimulate a desire to read the best books themselves; second, to interpret literature personally and historically; third, to show how our literature has steadily developed. The illustrations are few but well chosen and there is a map, a bibliography, and a good index.

Studies in Development and Learning, by EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK. The Science Press, New York, 1909. 101 p. (Archives of Psychology, edited by R. S. Woodworth.)

This is a distinctly pedagogical publication. It consists of more than a dozen Normal School theses by young ladies helped by their teacher. No one may claim that any of them make any contribution to our knowledge of children; but they are interesting and new as showing how child study can be utilized as a method of teaching and how readily it adapts itself to Normal work in psychology. Together the theses constitute an interesting illustration of practical work in this field.

The Point of View of Modern Education, by HARRIET A. MARSH. Public-School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1905. 177 p.

This book contains the substance of lectures which an experienced and wise teacher has given to mothers' clubs, in the organization of which in connection with the school she is a pioneer. The topics are the growth of the affections, three nerve centres, the child and his teachers, what the child should learn (three talks), and influences (two talks), with a list of reference books and a rather copious appendix of lesson papers, suggesting studies for clubs of teachers and parents.

Experimental Dairy Bacteriology, by H. L. RUSSELL and E. G. HASTINGS. Ginn & Co., Boston, 1909. 147 p.

This course aims to train the student in those bacteriological processes that are necessary for him to comprehend thoroughly before he is in a position to appreciate the relation of micro-organisms to dairy processes. As little as possible is said of dairy manufactures. The chief topics are cultural and misroscopic technique, contamination, fermentation, preservation, hygiene of milk, relations of bacteria to butter and cheese. There are eighteen figures and a good index, and practical details are treated in an appendix.

Reaching the Boys of an Entire Community, edited by C. B. Horton. Y. M. C. A. Press, New York, 1909. 249 p.

This work consists of sixteen chapters by as many individuals on a varity of topics, such as perils, Sunday School, leadership, church and school, clubs, fraternities, Knights of King Arthur, self-government, the Tuxis system, reading and the drama, moral lapses, physical activities, practical application of the principles of adolescence. These papers are practical rather than theoretical, and abound with news "from the front."

The Message of Psychic Science to the World, by MARY EVEREST BOOLE. C. W. Daniel, London, 1908. 266 p.

This work is dedicated to those whose names are wrapped in silence, and is introduced by a poem on the fellowship of the dead. The author's father was a learned occultist, and the writer has inherited his ideas, and in this work, which is withont index, proceeds to discuss the forces of nature, development, an infantile fever as a crisis of it, mental hygiene in sickness, claims of science and theology, thought transference, homeopathy, etc.

Working with the People, by CHARLES SPRAGUE SMITH. A. Wessels Co., New York, 1908. 161 p.

Many have long wanted a succinct account of what the author was really doing in Cooper Union, for the most favorable partial reports of his work have been long spread abroad; and here he tells us himself. It is indeed interesting to see how he has organized a people's forum, church, club, hall and progressive democracy, courses in social science and a vast number of other activities, so that we might almost call his institution a people's university. It is as unique as it is interesting.

From Youth into Manhood, by WINFIELD S. HALL. Y. M. C. A. Press, New York, 1909. 106 p.

This interesting and valuable handbook describes first a type of young manhood, then adolescence or steps into it, followed by a chapter each upon the anatomy and physiology of the male sexual organs, sexual hygiene of the young man, personal hygiene, including diet, baths, exercise, the hygienic requirements of sleep and the control of thoughts.

Life's Day. Guide-Posts and Danger Signals in Health, by WILLIAM SEAMAN BAINBRIDGE. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1909. 308 p.

This is a volume of Chautauqua lectures by an earnest advocate of common sense and moderation in all things and of the doctrine of cheerfulness and hope. The book is divided into several parts following the life of man. 1. Heredity and Environment. 2. Infancy. 3. Childhood. 4. Maturity. 5. Old Age. The author is a physician and also brings to his task a profound sense of the importance of the themes he treats.

Co-ordinate Geometry, by HENRY BURCHARD FINE and HENRY DALLAS THOMPSON. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1909. 300 p.

In this book the several conics are treated early and in some detail, partly because of the value of a knowledge of their more important properties and partly because of the advantage when presenting the analytic method to the student of applying it in the first instance of the systematic study of a few interesting curves.

Frauenbewegung und Sexualethik, von DR. GERTRUD BAÜMER and others. Eugen Salzer, Heilbronn a. N., 1909. 176 p.

The various authors here treat the following topics: the problems of morality, the principal questions of sexual ethics, the feministic anarchy of thought, the new ethics a hundred years ago, the present female movement and the modern criticism of marriage, marriage and free love, ethics and eugenics, Mutterschutz, prostitution.

Der Kindergarten, von A. S. FISCHER. Alfred Hölder, Wien, 1909. 179 p.

This work seems to be a good orthodox general treatment of the condition of things in German kindergartens. It is an old standard re-edited and has long served as a text for the students of the kindergarten in the Fatherland, and to us it offers a good indication of the condition of this subject in the Fatherland.

How to Feed Children, by LOUISE E. HOGAN. 9th ed. newly revised. Lippincott, Philadelphia, 1909. 249 p.

This work has been before the public ever since 1896. The present ninth edition has undergone some modifications and contains a new chapter upon school luncheons and considerable incidental matter throughout on pasteurization.

The Great Issues, edited and published by Wharton Barker, Philadelphia, 1902. 391 p.

The writer here reprints some of his editorials from The American from 1897 to 1900, especially those on finance, and other current topics. All are written in an able, vigorous style.

Readings in Modern European History, by JAMES HARVEY ROBINSON and CHARLES A. BEARD. Ginn & Co., Boston, 1909. Vol. II, 541 p.

This is a continuation of the previous volume of the same sort printed some time ago. As modern times are approached, historical writing becomes more and more diffuse, so that condensation has to be resorted to more frequently.

Menschenkunde, von GEORG BUSCHAN. Strecker & Schröder, Stuttgart, n. d. 265 p.

This is a kind of guide-book to general anthropology, treating of height, weight, the skeleton, the various members of the body, left-handedness, relation of man to animals, etc., and is illustrated with many cuts representing nationalities, etc.

A Catalogue of the Flowering Plants and Ferns of Worcester County, Massachusetts, by JOSEPH JACKSON, 3d ed. rev. and enl. Worcester Natural History Society, Worcester, 1909. 102 p.

Plane and Spherical Trigonometry and Four-Place Tables of Logarithms, by WILLIAM ANTHONY GRANVILLE. Ginn & Co., Boston, 1909. 264 + 38 p.

Report of the Delegates of the United States to the Pan-American Congress held at Santiago, Chile, December 25, 1908, to January 5, 1909. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1909. 65 p.

Williams College. The Induction of Harry Augustus Garfield, LL.D., into the office of President, October seventh, MDCCCCVIII. Printed at the Riverside Press. 128 p.

Heredity and Variation in the Simplest Organisms, by HERBERT S. JENNINGS. Reprinted from The American Naturalist, Vol. XLIII, No. 510, June, 1909, pp. 321-337.